DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 166 925 EC 113 862

AUTHOR Good, Patricia C.
TITLE Programs for Handicapped Children in New York State. Occasional Paper #29.
PUB DATE Jun 78
NOTE 118p.

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.83 HC-$6.01 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Delivery Systems; *Educational Finance; Educational Philosophy; Financial Policy; *Handicapped Children; *Historical Reviews; Labeling (of Persons); *Special Education; State Programs; Trend Analysis
IDENTIFIERS New York

ABSTRACT

The paper traces the history and current status of special education services for handicapped children in New York state. The initial section reviews the historical perspective and analyzes future trends. The philosophy of special education regarding labeling, individualized learning, and mainstreaming is examined. Staff selection, transportation, physical facilities, and administrative structures are considered as they relate to the delivery system and financing special education. Recommendations are made for using "severe" and "non-severe" handicapping as a base for aid allocation and for making allocations based on programs rather than on a per pupil factors. Among four appendixes is information on anticipated per pupil expenditure and excess cost in six New York cities. (CL)

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OCCASIONAL PAPER #29

PROGRAMS FOR HANDICAPPED CHILDREN IN NEW YORK STATE

Patricia C. Good

Public Law 93,380,
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June, 1978

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CHAPTER I

Historical Perspective of Special Education

Early Years Prior to 1950

Early 18th century attitudes regarding disabilities and handicapped people linked them with spirits, mysticism, and the occult. People frequently regarded the handicapped with morbid curiosity and approached them with fear. Anything that was not understood was often approached with fear and human beings usually avoided experiences that elicited anxiety. For these reasons, the handicapped were often "put away" or ignored by family and neighbors. Although our laws today support the philosophy of equality of individuals, early citizens of this country had not accepted such a broad humanitarian approach for the sick and disabled. This lack of acceptance unfortunately is often true today as well.

In the early years of the 19th century, people like Horrace Mann, Dorothea Dix, and Samuel Gridley Howe dedicated part of their lives to speaking out in behalf of retarded and disabled children. In 1817, Rev. Thomas Gallaudid developed a program for deaf children in Connecticut. In 1832, the New York Institute for the Education of the Blind was established in New York City (Cruickshank, 1975). In 1864, Abraham Lincoln signed the first federal assistance law providing for the unique problems of handicapped children (Deighton, 1971). By the mid-1800's, residential schools for handicapped children were beginning to emerge. Most people, however, were still apathetic about the entire concept of public education for handicapped children and these residential schools were generally

for the severely handicapped children who needed care twenty-four hours a day.

At the turn of the twentieth century, Dr. Alexander Graham Bell initiated a program to meet more of the needs and concerns of handicapped children. This program began an era of concern about the public schools' place in their education. Dr. Bell pursued his concern further and in 1902 the "Department of Special Education" was created within the National Education Association (Gearheart, B.R., 1972). The early programs within the public school were once again developed only for the severely handicapped. Even though the struggle began as early as the 1929 White House Conference on Children, little was done to insure quality educational opportunities for every handicapped child prior to 1940. In retrospect, probably the most important single factor in helping educators and legislators to begin to provide for the handicapped person has been the growth of the philosophy of "education for all".

At first, the educational system dealt with the handicapped child by segregating him in special, private institutions. These institutions were often boarding schools with limited budgets and poor conditions. Families who placed their children in such places had to pay the expense of the services provided for their children. Care was usually available only to families which were wealthy or had some other means of providing the necessary funds. By using institutions, people were able to free themselves of their guilt by convincing themselves that the handicapped person was receiving an education like other children (Cruickshank, 1975). Seldom did the involved parties consider that the use of an institution

for educating these persons was not necessarily a normal living situation, nor did they consider that the child was being deprived of some of the normal learning methods. As students began to complete this type of training system, it began to be recognized that many handicapped persons were ill prepared to cope sufficiently with the real, every-day world. The handicapped persons had a form of education, but it did not adequately prepare them to find a place for themselves in the American society.

As free public education became more available in the United States, people began to push for the opportunity of having handicapped children educated in the public schools, but not in the regular classroom with "normal" children. They were placed in special, segregated classrooms. Usually, teachers had little or no training in handling these children and consequently did little for them educationally (Cruickshank, 1975). The handicapped child was left to play and entertain himself as long as he did not harm himself or others. Teachers of normal children soon found that the segregated classroom was a convenient place for isolating other children who were difficult to handle in the regular classroom. As late as the 1930's, public school administrators were finding that their systems were neither philosophically nor financially prepared to offer a curricula for children with special needs and problems (Brenton, 1974). An advertisement appeared in the New York Times in the 40's requesting that parents who were in the New York City area unite to discuss mutual problems of their handicapped children. The New York State Cerebral Palsy Association was created in response to this advertisement (Cruickshank, 1975).

The United States Office of Education in 1948 indicated that only 12 percent of the handicapped children in the United States were receiving any form of special education (Fleischmann, 1972, volume 2). In the same year, the New York State Legislature created BOCES to "improve educational opportunities in rural areas" by overcoming the problems unique to rural areas (Chapter 1950, 1953). These programs, by law, were to provide shared services to two or more school districts in rural and sparsely populated areas where the provision of such services would otherwise be difficult. BOCES developed programs generally using partial or complete segregation to provide educational opportunities for the handicapped.

1950 - 1970--Era of Research and Development

The period from 1950 to 1970 was filled with experimentation, research and investigation. Many of the old concepts, ideas, and labels were proving to be ineffective in describing handicapped children. Perhaps the greatest change came when the word "exceptional" was substituted for the word "handicapped." The rationale for this new term was that children have different needs and each one needs special help, consideration and attention. Dr. Samuel Kirk, Director of the Division of Handicapped Children and Youth, defines an exceptional child as one "who deviates from the normal or average child to such an extent that he requires a modification of school practices, or special services in order to develop to his maximum capacity" (Gallagher, 1974). This term, however, did not gain acceptance as hoped and, in many areas, the term handicapped is still used to refer to children with physical and emotional problems.

During the 50's, parent groups began to form to fight more openly for those very special things that their children required in addition to services and opportunities granted to the so called "normal" child. The concerns of parents finally reached Congress and the White House in 1958. The Handicapped Child Benefit and Education Bill was the result of lengthy testimony before the House Ad Hoc Committee on the Handicapped which was chaired by Hugh Carey, then a New York Congressman. This legislation in 1958 authorized programs for the handicapped to be administered by the Office of Education (U.S.O.E.), (Deighton, 1971). The culmination of Public Laws 85-926 and 87-276 brought extensive change: new programs in research, education of teachers, and modern facilities for clinical examinations.

With the election of John F. Kennedy in the 60's, a new era erupted in the life of the educational systems of this country. President Kennedy was very interested in social injustices and began campaigning for laws and regulations that would extend the civil rights of all Americans. President Kennedy instituted the President's Committee on Mental Retardation, which was made up of professionals in related fields of special education. The Mental Retardation Facilities Act of 1964 (Public Law 88-164) occurred as a result of this committee's recommendation, the rising interest of concerned parents, and pressure from other groups. This Act designated greater training and research funds for the handicapped.

President Kennedy also developed the Division of Handicapped Children and Youth under the direction of Dr. Samuel Kirk which was to administer an expanding program of research and professional preparation to

care for the needs of a growing number of identified children. By 1963, the USOE indicated that the number of handicapped children receiving any appropriate educational help was about 21 percent of the total number of children identified as handicapped (Fleischmann, 1972). Progress in identifying children and creating programs was soon halted, however, when in 1965 the USOE reorganized in an attempt to save money. The Division of Handicapped Children and Youth, with all of its components, was disbanded and scattered among units within the Office of Education. The result of this action was a reduction in the development of programs, services, and research for the handicapped. There was no longer a visible administration to monitor the federally supported programs (U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare..., 1973).

A new Bureau of Education for the Handicapped was developed under the Office of Education in 1966 as a part of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (Public Law 89-750). Added to it in the form of amendments was the substance of the old Handicapped Child Benefit and Education Bill. The U.S. Commissioner of Education authorized the National Advisory Committee on Handicapped Children to make an annual report to Congress and the American people. The report of 1967 indicated a new move in the direction of programs with more accountability, reduction of dependency for handicapped people, and institutional reform.

President Nixon in 1969 called for a consolidation and coordination of the programs for handicapped and disabled persons. By 1969, all but two states, Mississippi and Ohio, had adopted statutes that mandated the education of the handicapped (Doeringer, 1975). Then in the spring of

1970, Congress passed Public Law 91-230, which codified major educational legislation for the handicapped into the Education of the Handicapped Act. This act continued to authorize the National Advisory Committee on Handicapped Children. Congressman Hugh Carey urged the passage of this bill because he had noted that a minimum figure for the care of an institutionalized child is seven dollars a day or about $2,500 a year. The total amount over a period of 60 years of care would be about $150,000. However, if this same person were to receive special training from the earliest possible time, the cost would be cut in half as he or she might eventually be able to provide some help for him/herself (Deighton, 1971). This was the first law for handicapped children that did not ride on the coat-tails of another piece of educational legislation. The Act established funds for demonstration programs (referred to as First Change) which were to be geographically disbursed to involve parents, and to disseminate information concerning the programs. The Act further required that the programs be coordinated with one another and that they be evaluated for their effectiveness.

The annual reports from the National Advisory Committee have continued to reaffirm the rights of all handicapped and disabled children to a free and appropriate education regardless of their disability. The committee has further stated the need for strong federal support of programs, of teacher preparation and research for the handicapped. It clearly earmarked federal aid to the states for the development of specific procedures and plans for educating all handicapped people.

1970 - 2000--Present to Future

During the two decades 1950-1970, the professional knowledge concerning a child's individual needs was greatly extended. The handicapped child, as an individual, became the central theme for special educational programs. By 1972 many states, as a result of the vocational education programs and services for the handicapped, had designated at least one person on the state staff to assume responsibility for planning, supervising, and monitoring this target population.

Chapter nine of the Fleischmann Report specifically concerned itself with children who are left out of the educational system because of "physical, mental, or emotional deficiences, or because they are in state and private insitutions or foster homes where educational opportunities are scarce or nonexistent (Fleischmann, 1972: 9.1)." The report continued to affirm that all children in New York State, regardless of any disability, have a right to an education at the public's expense. It was estimated at the time that at least forty-five percent of the handicapped students in the state were not receiving any form of special education services. The Fleischmann report estimated that the local school districts were providing services for some 459,200 handicapped young people between the ages of 5 and 20. In general, the report supported the continuation of resource rooms and itinerant teacher programs for providing the necessary services as opposed to special, segregated classrooms which were traditionally used; and urged, as well, that whenever possible "special" children remain in regular school buildings. The report further blamed the state in many cases for failing to provide

necessary funds so that local school districts, rather than BOCES centers, could provide the required services (Fleischmann, 1972). In 1973, New York was the only state that did not provide categorical and/or extra weighting for handicapped children (Rice, 1975). In 1962, when the Diefendorf Law was established, the weighting of general state aid for handicapped children had been eliminated.

The Education of Handicapped Act of 1970 was amended by the Education of the Handicapped Amendments of 1974 (Public Law 93-390). The Law established the goal of providing full educational opportunities to all handicapped children and called for the finances whereby this aim could be attained. Reform was encouraged by continued court challenges by people who were concerned that "special" children receive the same opportunities as "normal" students (Brown v. Board of Ed. 1965; Diana v. State Board of Education, 1970; Hobson v. Hanson, 1967; Pennsylvania Association for Retarded Children v. Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, 1972; Serrano v. Priest, 1970; Wyatt v. Stickney, 1972). Courts agreed that it was the states' responsibility to provide the necessary special and appropriate services, but problems with the implementation and the development of equal educational opportunity for exceptional children seemed to plague every district.

In 1975, it was estimated that there were approximately 8 million handicapped children of both pre-school and school ages in the United States (Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1975). It was further estimated that one out of every eight children in the United States had problems severe enough to be classified as an "exceptional child" (Cruickshank, 1975). Only about one half of these children were receiving

any form of special services.

Public Law 93-390 was amended by the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 (P.L. 94-142). Public Law 94-142, often called the "Bill of Rights for Handicapped", is considered to be one of the most comprehensive and complicated pieces of educational legislation mandated by the Federal government. Abeson and Ballard concluded that "the whole purpose and design of Public Law 94-142 was aimed at terminating the unconstitutional exclusion of handicapped from the public educational system (Semmel, 1977, p. 4)." Congress allowed public school systems several months to assess, not only their program, but also their facilities, personnel, procedures and finances as they relate to the adherence of this law. Many school officials have felt that they did not have to concern themselves with this act as long as they did not apply for the federal monies which accompanied it; however, Martha M. McCarthy notes:

> This statue which guarantees certain basic rights and protections to all handicapped children, is in effect, a civil rights act. Therefore, school officials do not have the luxury of ignoring its mandates; state and local education agencies will be effected by the requirements of this law regardless of their intent to apply for federal assistance (McCarthy, 1977, p. 57).

The mere passage of this bill does not guarantee that school districts will hasten to implement its many difficult and complex demands. There appears to be much confusion and uncertainity among educators because underlying each aspect of the law is a series of implications and ramifications which effect all phases of local educational systems.

First, the legislative action covers an estimated eight million

children whose handicaps vary from emotionally disturbed or mentally retarded to physically disabled or any combination. The law expressed the view that various kinds of rights were being violated by school districts in their provision of programs for handicapped children. As a result, the law states that a free and appropriate education must be guaranteed to each handicapped student with no cost to the parents/guardians for this "appropriate service". With the enactment of this legislation, parents of handicapped children and the children themselves are to be assured the right of due process, the right of nondiscriminatory testing and labeling, and the right of confidential handling of personal records and information.

Second, the law further strengthens the linkage between the federal government and school districts through each state department of education. As an administrative procedure, Congress anticipates that this closer monitoring of plans and programs for handicapped students will extend present services and assure compliance with the federal legislation. The state education department must audit each local public and private educational system for compliance.

Third is the demand for each local educational system to develop a comprehensive Individualized Educational Plan (IEP) for each handicapped child. These conceptual agreements are to be developed on a yearly basis as a joint effort of the parents, the teacher, other school representatives and, in some cases, the child. They will include an evaluation of the child's present level of performance. Based on this information, the IEPs must also include a series of long term goals and objectives, short term measurable goals, a timeline for reaching these goals and objectives (Sec. 4(a)(19)).

The law further requires that at any time during a child's educational experience, should the parents/guardians need an interpreter to explain any of the materials to them in their native language, the district must provide such a person, (Sec. 615 (b)(1)(D)). In accordance with the law, each individualized plan is to be a part of the child's continuing file which is to be available to the child's family upon request, (Sec. (b)(1)(A)).

Finally, the law states that processes have to be established to guarantee that, "to the maximum extent appropriate" handicapped students are educated with non-handicapped students. Stated another way, this is interpreted to mean that handicapped children can only be segregated from the regular educational classroom when the severity of the handicap will prevent the child from achieving satisfactorily and successfully in that environment.

The implementation of this law requires an increase in the paper work for each of the handicapped children and additional time of teachers and administrators to assure that lessons meet the needs of each handicapped child. Not only must the individualized plans be on file at each school, but districts must send regularly to the state agencies an accurate and complete set of data regarding the progress of handicapped students within the district (Sec. 614 (a)(3)(B)). Jasper Harvey concluded that some 250,000 additional personnel will be needed nation wide in order to provide the full services required by Public Law 94-142 (McCarthy and Marks, 1977). This fact alone could have all kinds of ramifications for change that might take place within schools and their programs. McCarthy

has concluded that the real impact of this law will be witnessed at the building level. The principal of each school will occupy a vital position in determining whether the law's intent will be realized.

New York State anticipated the federal legislation with the passage of Chapter 241 of the Laws of 1974. Chapter 241 required local planning to improve special education services and provided special funding to school districts based on the program criteria. This law defined handicapping conditions and gave program suggestions. It recognized that attention should be given to individual differences and that each child may operate differently within given programs. The law also encouraged school districts to provide for handicapped children in regular classrooms when possible, but to provide full time services when needed.

The appropriateness of the particular service for each child was to be the constant concern of the handicapped committee within each local district. District committees for the handicapped had been previously ordered by Commissioner's Regulations, but few were in actual operation. The requirement reflected a long standing concern of the Regents that a "viable and functional system of advocacy" for handicapped students should be designed to assure that children with handicapping conditions receive educational opportunities commensurate with their needs (Regents Position Paper, 1968: 9)." The committees are to identify, review and evaluate the status of all handicapped children. This information is to be used to make recommendations concerning each child's program. The district committees are to identify specific concerns and furnish recommendations to the local boards of education who are expected to handle

operational details (Regents Paper #20).

The State Education Department has developed program assessment criteria. They apply to the characteristics of the programs, however, rather than to the needs of the students. The criteria deal with six different areas which are: eligibility of the student, assessment and placement of the student, comprehensive programs and service, housing facilities, equipment and material education programs, and the qualifications of the teachers and supervisors. The major concern of the program assessment checklist is that everything which comes in contact with handicapped children in the educational setting helps in their development as useful citizens.

Chapter II

Philosophy of Special Education

It appears that most Americans accept the concept that all people are entitled to equal educational opportunities. Supported by this belief is a group of about eight million handicapped children, many of whom had been previously secluded in remote corners of a variety of institutions and deprived of such opportunities. Charles Jung asserts that "the primary goal of the school system is seen as creating experiences which maximize learning opportunities for all pupils (Watson, 1967: 69)." The present is a time that educational institutions are moving to clarify their philosophy regarding handicapped children.

According to the regulations of the New York State Commissioner of Education:

> A handicapped child is one who, because of mental, and/or physical, and/or emotional reasons, is not benefiting or cannot be expected to benefit from regular class instruction, but who can benefit from special services and programs which include, but are not limited to transportation; home teaching; special classes, special teachers, pupil personnel services; resource rooms or other special facilities; and/or those services, facilities, or programs which can be obtained through the payment of tuition to boards of cooperative educational services, vocational educational and extension boards, public school districts, or other state education approved agencies (Regulations of the Commissioner of Education, section 200.1).

The development and organization of education programs in American school systems have been geared traditionally toward groups of students, as illustrated by the typical self-contained classroom (Helling, 1970). A child may leave home as an individual yet from the moment he enters a

school bus or a school door, he becomes a member of a group and thus subjected to all aspects of group life, group norms and general group conditions. Correspondingly, teaching methodology has been designed to deal with groups of children. In many school programs, individuality and individual recognition has been almost completely neglected (Bechtol, 1973).

Special education has been developing as a branch of the American educational system, and has been fitted into the general grouping model. This model has permitted educators to consolidate many of the problems that have appeared within the field. Special education has been defined as:

> ...an area within the framework of general education that provides (1) appropriate facilities, (2) specialized materials and methods, and (3) teachers with specialized training for children considered handicapped. (Reger, Schroeder, and Uschold, 1968: 24).

In New York State there are nine different categories in which handicapped children are to be placed. The definitions for these categories are listed and defined in Appendix II of this report. More specifically, handicapped children have been placed in class groups and segregated from other children in the district either according to specific problems or according to the labeling of their handicap. Self-contained special educating programs were developed in an effort to educate this population of children whose needs could not adequately be met in regular classes (Harding, Stern, and Cruickshank, 1958; Hewitt and Forness, 1974).

Labeling

"Labeling" originated at the turn of this century when the use of an examination similar to the French Benet intelligence test was intro-

duced in the United States (Lilly, 1975). Until the 1800's, schools in the United States had been established primarily to instruct and refine the wealthy youth and did not reach the masses to any large extent. As more of the masses were enrolled in schools and were tested by the Benet test, many masses scored poorly. In order to explain such "failures", some students were categorized as mentally retarded and thus began one of the misnomers within the field of special education and the origin of labeling (Lilly, 1975 and Reynolds, 1975).

Educators and legislators have been guilty of labeling which over-generalized both the educational needs of problem children and the methods for filling those needs. Frequently the labels may degrade the students, as information from teachers is insufficient to asses the source and the cause of the difficulties. Does the learning difficulty originate in the student's inability to comprehend, or in the teaching methods used to instruct him? A teacher may search for a diagnosis of the situation and in so doing unfairly rationalize away his own failures by shifting them to the child. If there is an over simplification of the problem, then the student may be unfairly blamed. The law presently provides that exceptional children are to be placed in classes depending upon their capabilities and defects, and upon their educational, social and emotional needs. Each category is further defined and a basic curriculum for the children within this group has been developed to serve as an aid to the school system.

The Fleischmann Commission Report focused upon categorical labeling when it stated:

> "These children whom we view as having 'learning problems' requiring treatment through 'special education' are often still categorized with medical and legal labels like 'mentally retarded' or 'brain injured'. Unfortunately, such labeling of these children causes us to lose sight of the fact that all children have all the same components of learning ability and disability, and vary only in the degree to which one or more components are present." (Fleischmann, 1973: Volume 2, Section 9, 9.1).

Even prior to P.L. 94-142, handicapped students might be referred to those in the medical profession for diagnosis and doctors often used labels to denote the problematic condition of the child as opposed to his educational needs and their solution. With the enactment of P.L. 94-142, the medical referral policy was strengthened as it is required that some medical authority be a part of the committee for diagnosing the basis problem of the handicapped students. Although labels may be convenient for administrative processes, medical observation, and some types of special instruction, labeling can be very harmful to individuals.

Labels can be negative in their connotations and a detriment when inappropriately used (Lilly, 1975). Much care needs to be exercised when labeling children as handicapped as this stigma will directly effect their lives and their future education. Names for categorical needs should be withheld until adequate evidence is available about the nature and degree of the child's condition. Dapper (1974) concludes that it is "harder to get a child out of special class placement than into it... It is like a sentence of death... an inescapable dead end" ((1974:27).

Individual Learning

Learning has been defined as the process by which a child expands his

asset to prepare him to comprehend the influences of his environment and to apply his understanding in a productive manner for his own use in society (Watson, 1967). Thus learning is more than memorization. One's mind may acquire a conglomeration of facts without having any idea of how to channel these facts into useful behaviors. Learning experiences should create opportunities for individuals to gain the maximum ability from new facts and skills.

As has been previously discussed, schools organize groups of students according to certain norms. Special education has been adapted into the same model. Children have been frequently segregated according to their handicaps without sufficient materials, planning or thought toward helping them adapt to a better learning process: one that will prepare them to take their places in the environment and to be productive individuals in society (Watson, 1967).

Students do not learn at the same rate of speed for a variety of reasons: desire and readiness to learn, teaching style used, interest, and challenge of materials. If the differences within a group are too great, defeat and failure may be a common experience for some children. Here it is evident that individualization of learning can involve small groups that are adaptable for personal projects and class sessions (Watson, 1967).

Martin concludes that the complexity of educating handicapped children should be reduced by dealing with them in small uniform classes. These groups should not necessarily be based on "labeling" categories, but on "the relevant behavior of the child," the type of process to be

to be learned, etc., (Martin, 1972).

The child must be at the center of the individualized training. For years the major emphasis has been placed on the process of education rather than on the process by which learning takes place in each individual. For individualization of learning, it is essential that a strong teacher-student relationship exist. The needs for the whole student should be met as opposed to meeting the particular requirements of his disability. The meeting of these needs are essential for the student to experience success within his school "environment" now and in society later.

Public Law 94-142 faced the individualization issue by requiring that each local school district provide each handicapped pupil with an "individualized education plan" (IEP). The plan is a written statement (developed in conference) to meet the unique needs of each handicapped pupil. It is prepared at the time of entrance into the special programs and is to be reviewed and revised periodically during each school year. Each individualized education plan is to include:

> (i) a statement of present levels of educational performance of such pupil.
>
> (ii) a statement of annual goals, including short term instructional goals.
>
> (iii) a statement of the specific educational services and instructional materials to be provided to such pupils, and the extent to which the pupil will be available to participate in regular education programs.
>
> (iv) the projected date of initiation, and anticipated duration of such services.
>
> (v) appropriate objective criteria and evaluation procedures and schedules for determining, on at least

> an annual basis, whether the instructional objectives are being achieved. (P.L. 94-142)

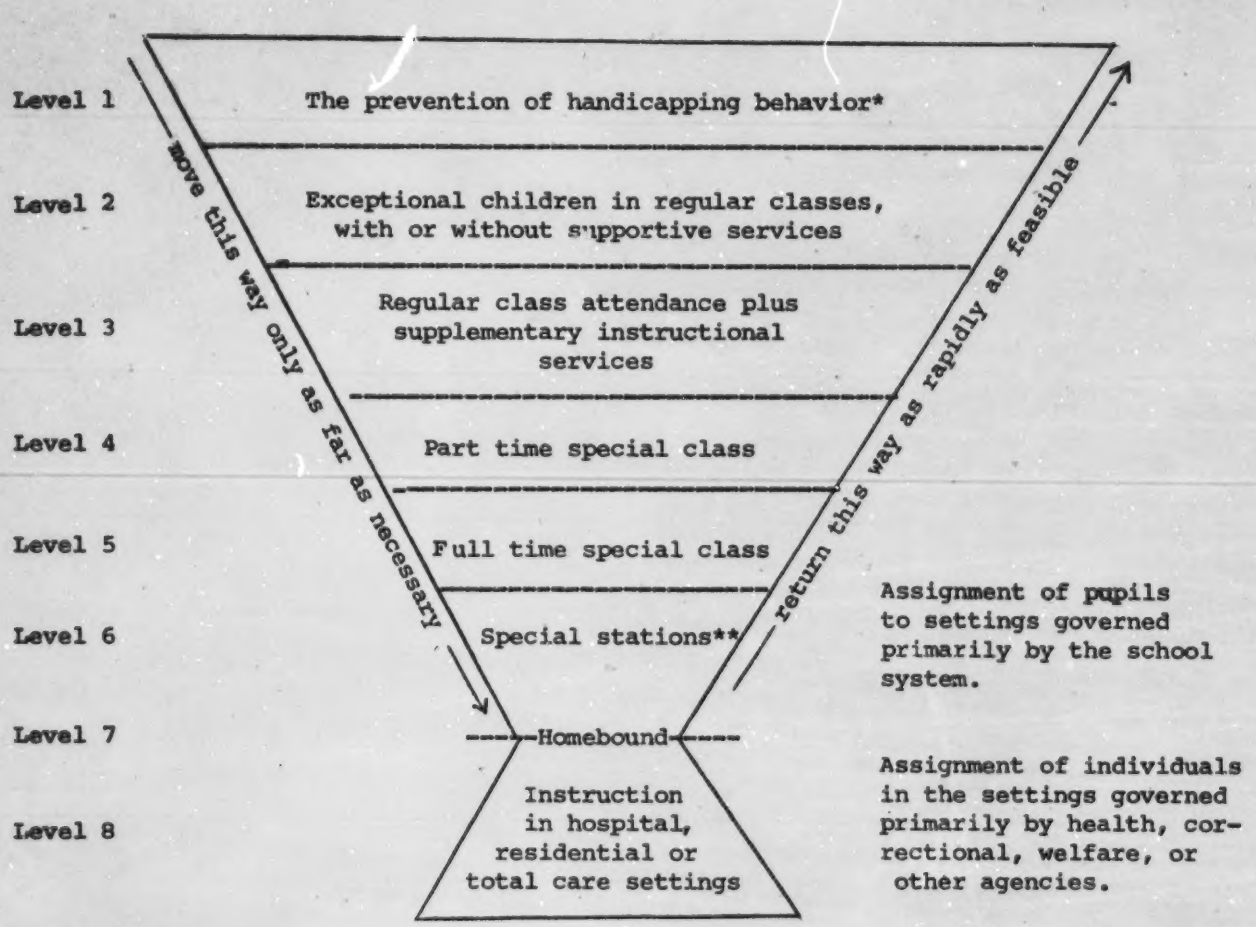
In New York State, the regulations of the Commissioner define a plan for the IEP's, however, no guidelines for implementation of that plan were established at the outset. Each district has developed an interpretation and a written plan to fulfill the requirements. Some districts have taken the new recommendations very seriously and have developed a detailed plan for each handicapped child; but some districts have routinely placed the minimum required information after a conference with the child's parent. Several educators have commented that one of the purposes of the IEP, as they saw it, was to provide some sort of uniformity in the special education programs across the state and nation, but the plan has not yet achieved this goal.

Mainstreaming

An appropriate special services program is to be provided for all eligible children. Deno's Cascade model for special educational services gives a strategy for improving opportunities for handicapped children. This model portrays the basic assumption that children are seldom all able or all handicapped. Some of the children, because of their disability, will require help from specialists in a particular field. The major concept of this model (see diagram I) is that children should only move down from the top level as far as necessary and return toward the top as rapidly as feasible, (Deno, 1970). Handicapped children, he believes, should be placed within a public school building where there are classes of regular grades so as to promote integration into regular school

Diagram I

Deno's Cascade System of Special Education


Level 1
The prevention of handicapping behavior*
Level 2
Exceptional children in regular classes, with or without supportive services
Level 3
Regular class attendance plus supplementary instructional services
Level 4
Part time special class
Level 5
Full time special class
Level 6
Special stations**
Level 7
Homebound
Level 8
Instruction in hospital, residential or total care settings
move this way only as far as necessary
return this way as rapidly as feasible
Assignment of pupils to settings governed primarily by the school system.
Assignment of individuals in the settings governed primarily by health, correctional, welfare, or other agencies.

*This means the development of positive cognitive, affective, and psychomotor skills in all pupils that will reduce or prevent the frequency of handicapping behavior.

**Special schools in public school systems.

Source: Deno, E. "The Cascade System of Special Education." In C. H. Meisgeier and J. D. King, (EDS). The Process of Special Education Administration. Scranton: International Textbook 1.

activities ("normalization"). They are to be excluded from an ordinary classroom setting only when, after appropriate evaluation, the students are found to have physical or mental problems which prevent them from learning in the normal classroom setting.

According to Section 612 (B) of Publ. Law 94-142, "procedures must be established to assure that to the maximum extent, appropriate handicapped children are educated with children who are not handicapped." The provisions clearly specify that removal of handicapped children from the regular educational environment can occur only when the nature of severity of the handicap is such that education in the regular classroom cannot be achieved satisfactorily, (Chiba and Semmel, 1977: 21). The trend of the 70's to integrate the handicapped child into the regular classroom setting is a direct reversal of the practices of the 50's and 60's. This pattern has been termed, "mainstreaming".

Lloyd Dunn (Mosley and Spicker, 1975) points out in his research that special education classes have in many cases become the dumping grounds for children who are of low social status or who are racially or culturally different. His primary concern is that these children may be misplaced and may not belong in a segregated special education program. Educators are becoming increasingly aware that in many local districts inappropriate assessment procedures are taking place. Harding and Schiefelbusch (1976) in their research reported that approximately 90% of the "exceptional" children have rather mild deviance from the norm and could adapt therefore to a regular classroom situation.

Myron Brenton has defined mainstreaming as a process of "moving"

handicapped children from their segregated status in special education classes and integrating them with normal children in regular classrooms (Andelman, 1976: 18). In all of the studies on special education, there has been little or no evidence that children benefit from segregated services; and yet separation still exists.

Mainstreaming has quickly entered the scene of contemporary thinking and has touched off some explosive controversies. The innovation has given rise to a volume of opinions describing the concept, its programs, and plans; establishing new roles and requirements for teachers, special teachers, and consultants; and giving various descriptions of mainstreaming programs and their anticipated results (Daipper, 1974; and Mosely and Spicker, 1975). It is a particularly popular concept among special education teachers although regular classroom teachers are showing some resistance to the idea.

Ryor (1976) presents the opinion that mainstreaming can be very successful when regular and special teachers are allowed to work in conjunction with administrators in initiating the program. On the other hand, this may enlarge classroom size and assign new responsibility to regular classroom teachers. In order for mainstreaming to be effective, it is absolutely essential that a strong bond exist between regular and special education teachers.

Mainstreaming represents a complex change in school organization. A fundamental problem in implementing this approach is that many regular classroom teachers do not, so far, have the skills to deal with children with handicaps. In addition, teachers fear that the handicapped student

may not achieve in the regular classroom and this places an added strain on the relationship between student, teacher and administration.

Statistics from Los Angeles, California are disheartening. Fifty percent of the balck and Mexican-American children in special classes were returned to the educational mainstream. They were given two years of special services to help them in the transition; yet 90% dropped out of school by the time they had reached their fourteenth birthday (Mosley and Spicker, 1975). This statistic may not, however, be evidence for or against the success of mainstreaming. One could consider three possibilities; first, that these children had been isolated from the "norm", not because they were handicapped but because of racial bias on the part of the school system; second, that perhaps such bias continued to pervade the two years of regular classroom and special services the minority children were given; and third, that for these children dropping out as soon as it was legally permissible may have been, not a failure, but a reasonable response to oppression.

Included in P.L. 94-142 is a directive for physical education for the handicapped. The law specifies that physical education instruction also be provided in the least restrictive possible environment, but instruction must be supplemented with special recreational services and related therapy. In many cases this is beyond the instructional competence of present teachers (Semmel and Hernmiller, 1977).

Not all educators are in favor of the concept of mainstreaming for the handicapped child. Samuel J. Bonhar, Jr., Director of the Division of Special Education in the Ohio Department of Education, states, "the

most restrictive and devasting environment I can think of for a learning-disabled kid is a regular grade-level class (Cole and Dunn, 1977:6)." Bonham and others fear that perhaps children may be placed in regular classrooms when such an environment may not be appropriate for their needs.

From the practical aspect, mainstreaming may be extremely difficult for a handicapped child when he/she is required to make the transition from small segregated classes with a relative amount of individual instruction to a large more traditional classroom. Cole and Dunn (1977) showed that difficulties occurred when hearing-impaired students joined a traditional English class of nearly 40 students. The room was arranged traditionally, one teacher facing the children in a series of rowed seats. As discussion evolved, the hearing-impaired students were expected to participate; however, it was difficult for them to hear most of their fellow classmates. Nor were they able to read the lips of more than a couple of their classmates because of the arrangements of seats. When these children were compared to the children who remained in a more segregated classroom, the researcher found that the children who had been mainstreamed had been unable to adjust as well socially as the children who were segregated. The researchers also found that the children did not "hear" all of the things that took place within the regular classroom setting.

In retrospect, one may well ask why so many children who are handicapped are still not receiving any of the appropriate, necessary services. Some of the reasons are:

A. Unfamilitarity of Needs. In many states, public school and

local administrators either do not know, or do not accept, the recent federal and state mandates concerning the education of handicapped children although education of the handicapped in New Jersey, for example, has been a low since 1911.

B. Lack of Resources. In some areas, the local communities have been unable and/or perhaps unwilling to support programs for the handicapped. The local administrators have demanded help from the state, and in turn the state has asked help from the federal government, while handicapped children have been the scapegoats of a bureaucratic battle over resources.

C. Petrifaction of Parents. Many parents are willing to settle for anything in the form of an education for their handicapped child by the time he reached the formative school years. Until this point, the parent of a handicapped child has fought an emotional, physical and financial battle for the child and has found little help from his local community. He is tired of the battle and accepts what is provided just for a rest from the hassle. In other cases, the parents are ignorant of the problems or are afraid to admit the existence of the handicap and so the child is still kept in a "closet".

D. Ill-advisability of the Diagnostic Systems. Many children have handicaps that have not been detected by the school system because administrators and teachers are not familiar with all the signs of a handicap. Those children who are detected as having problems are often referred onward, but the methods used are inadequate and often the diagnosis is insufficient. Yet in other cases the length of time is so long from the

time that the problem is detected to its diagnosis that all of the involved parties lose interest in the child's needs.

E. Legal Anachronisms. Compulsory attendance laws are a part of the statutes for 49 states. At the same time, these states also have legal provisions for waiving these laws and excluding a child from public education. These provisions are sometimes used as a justification for denying a handicapped child his/her rights to an education. Even though it is unconsitiutional, as long as these exclusional provisions remain on the books, people will use them, (Deighton, 1971; Fleischmann, 1972).

As educators begin to take more time in evaluating children's educational needs and problems, administrators may find that more of their students are "handicapped" and in need of special services, classes or individualized instruction. As always, there are differences of opinion and each local district will need to assess what it is presently doing for its handicapped children and to try to improve the services both for the good of the student and of the community. Who is going to be affected by these decisions? How is the already pressed school budget going to pay for additional staff, faculty, and building modifications? How will changes in school policy effect apathy, ignorance, and prejudice in the society? These questions must be answered. Education for the handicapped has come a long way in recent years, but it still has an uphill battle ahead before it achieves the objectives of established public policy.

Chapter III

Educational Delivery System for Children with Handicapping Conditions

The philosophy of special education held by a district directly effects the style of delivery system which that district uses to provide for its handicapped students. A district will consider its goals, expectations and resources for handicapped students as it goes about: selecting teachers, selecting methods of transportation, designing physical facilities and formulating administrative structures. In this chapter, these variables will be discussed as they relate to the delivery system itself. In the next chapter, these will be discussed as they relate to financing such services.

Identifying, Diagnosing and Serving Handicapped Students

In providing an educational program for the handicapped student, the first essential step is the need to properly identify and diagnose handicapping conditions. Failure to do so will, of course, preclude any possibility of providing appropriate services. In the mid-1960's a concern over the failure to identify all handicapped students and to provide appropriate services resulted in the New York State Commissioner of Education promulgating regulations that provided for the creation of a committee to study, evaluate and recommend appropriate placement for handicapped children within each school district. The nature of these committees have already been discussed in Chapter I. When the Fleischmann Commission report was filed in 1972, only 370 out of the 759 school districts had

appointed such a committee and the Commission claimed that many of these were functioning only at a minimal level (1972; Volume 2: 180). In 1975, after these committees had become a statuatory requirement, a study by the Legislative Commission on Expenditure Review determined that of 736 operating school districts, only 177 (24 percent) were providing any systematic diagnostic processes for identifying handicapped children and only 11 percent of the state's handicapped population were receiving adequate diagnostic assessments. The report found that many of the rural districts found compliance especially difficult because they did not always have appropriately trained personnel readily available for consultation. (Legislative Commission on Expenditure Review, June 28, 1976).

In 1975 the federal government took steps to try to force state and local educational agencies to improve the diagnostic methods and procedures for handicapped children. With the enactment of Public Law 94-142, the local committees for the handicapped gained legislative support for their existence. Chapter 853 of New York State law, which parallels P.L. 94-142 of the federal law, established procedures and policies for the committee for handicapped. When a possible handicapped child is identified in the school or community, he must be referred for testing. The child's referral can be made by a teacher, other professional school personnel, or a parent; however, consent for testing must be given in writing by the child's parent. Upon completion of such testing, an evaluation including a principal's report, a classroom teacher's report, a psychologist's report, a complete social and medical history and a waiver of confidentiality, must be filed. The child's case is then to be reviewed

by an eight member sub-committee. This committee consists of: the school principal (chairperson), a certified school psychologist (presently employed by the district), a special education teacher, a parent of another handicapped child who resides in the school district and the parents of the child involved. According to Chapter 853, the committee must meet within 30 days after the initial referral of the child to discuss the child's placement. If the parents agree to the placement decision of the committee, the child must be placed within the recommended program within thirty days. However, if this placement is not agreeable, the child's parents may seek to place him in a private institution and the state may be required to pay the tuition.

In spite of recent changes, criticisms are still being leveled at the committee's process. It has been charged that the committees are too loosely structured and operated so that inappropriate substitutions are made in their membership resulting in inadequate reviews and evaluations. Another criticism points to the lack of compliance with the regulations specified by the Commissioner and by Public Law 94-142. Three major reasons given by local school committees for not complying are:

(a) The rate of attrition among personnel assigned to a given task;

(b) the current staff shortage that exists within districts because of the economic crisis;

(c) the lack of meaningful legislative sanction or penalty upon the failure to comply with any given regulation. (Legislative Commission on Expenditure Review, June 28, 1976: 50).

New York City has found compliance with these regulations most difficult when a child's problem is thought to be neurologically based. Before

an initial diagnosis, the child is often already labeled by the school system (frequently improperly). The methods of screening and interviewing lack uniformity among the city's 35 administrative districts with the result that children with similar problems may actually be placed in different programs. Some have concluded that many referrals and evaluations are made in such a way as to prevent non-minority children from being placed in segregated classrooms (Office of the Deputy Chancellor, 1975).

Numerous studies have been made to estimate the number of handicapped students in the United States, but it has proven to be a difficult task and the discrepancy among estimates is great. One of the biggest problems has been that educational systems lack a uniform method of classifying, grouping or identifying handicapped children. Another problem has been in consistency in the terminology used by districts.

Federal statistics in Table 3.1 estimate that in 1948 there were approximately 439,656 handicapped students who were receiving special help from educational programs in public schools. By 1966 the number had increased to 2,106,100 and by 1977 to 3,842,242 - more than an eight fold increase over the 1948 enrollment figures. Another study showed that the proportion of handicapped children receiving special services is greater in the Southern states (4.55%) than in any other section of the country (3.4% - national average) (National Center for Educational Statistics, March 1976).

The National Advisory Committee on the Handicapped in 1976 revealed that, although many students were being helped by educational systems, there were more within each category that needed to be served. The report

Table 3.1

Pupil Enrollments in Special Education by Areas of Exceptionality 1948 to 1977

Area of Exceptionality	1948[1]	1958[2]	1963[3]	1966[4]	1977[5]
Total	439,656	975,972	1,682,351	2,106,100	3,842,242
Visually Handicapped	13,366	18,557	21,531	23,300	28,562
Hearing impaired - total	26,948	35,986	45,594	51,300	62,764
Speech impaired	182,344	494,137	802,197	989,500	1,306,853
Crippled (orthopedic)	47,277	57,230	64,842	69,400	125,618
Mentally retarded	108,440	251,594	431,890	540,100	839,330

1. Includes 48 states and the District of Columbia - Martens, Elisa H.; Harres, Catherine; and Stony, Robert C. Statistics of Special Schools and Classes for Exceptional Children, 1947-48, Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1959.
2. Includes 48 states and the District of Columbia - Mackie, Romaine P.; Williams, Harold M.; and Hunter, Patricia P. Statistic of Special Education for Exceptional Children and Youth, 1957-58, Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1963.
3. Data based on a 1963 status study of special education, Romaine Mackie, director - includes 50 states and the District of Columbia.
4. Estimated by the National Center of Educational Statistics and includes 50 states and the District of Columbia.
5. Estimates as a result of child count in October 1976 and February 1977 by the Bureau of Education for Handicapped. United States Office of Education (Informal communication, August 12, 1977).

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estimated that 45% of the handicapped students were not receiving special services to aid in their educational development.

Table 3.2 discloses statistics involving various categories of handicap and the percent of children served and unserved in these categories. Wilken (1976) concluded that the three largest groups still receiving insufficient educational services were the emotionally disturbed, those with learning disabilities, and partically deaf children. Approximately 1,055,000 children classified as having emotional problems and needing special help are not receiving such specialized help from the academic world. The National Advisory Committee on the Handicapped (1976) estimates that an even larger number of learning disabled children are not receiving adequate services. Yet, many districts claim that all children who are handicapped are in special classes receiving appropriate services. The question becomes: Are the public schools in reality providing for the entire handicapped population or are the methods of identifying handicapped students still inadequate?

In 1972 the Fleischmann Commission Report estimated that there were 459,228 handicapped children in New York State but of this number only 252,401 were receiving any educational services. The Basic Education Date System (BEDS) reported that in 1976, approximately 237,816 handicapped students were being served. Table 3.3 compares the number of handicapped students in New York State receiving special educational services in 1969-1970 to the number in 1975-1976. This table shows the Fleischmann Committee estimate of the number of handicapped not receiving any adequate education.

Table 3.2

Estimated Number of Handicapped Children Served and Unserved
By Type of Handicap (USOE/BEH/ASB)

	1975-76 Served (Projected)	1975-76 Unserved	Total Hand. Child. Served & Unserved	% Served	% Unserved
Total Age 0-19	4,310,000	3,577,000	7,887,000	55%	45%
Total Age 6-19	3,860,000	2,840,000	6,700,000	58%	42%
Total Age 0-5	450,000	737,000	1,187,000	38%	62%
Speech Impaired	2,020,000	273,000	2,293,000	88%	12%
Mentally Retarded	1,350,000	157,000	1,507,000	90%	10%
Learning Disabilities	260,000	1,706,000	1,966,000	13%	87%
Emotionally Disturbed	255,000	1,055,000	1,310,000	19%	81%
Crippled & Other Health Impaired	255,000	73,000	328,000	78%	22%
Deaf	45,000	4,000	49,000	92%	8%
Hard of Hearing	66,000	262,000	328,000	20%	80%
Visually Handicapped	43,000	23,000	66,000	65%	35%
Deaf-Blind & Other Multi-Handicapped	16,000	24,000	40,000	40%	60%

Source: National Advisory Committee on the Handicapped. The Unfinished Revolution: Education for the Handicapped. 1976 Annual Report.

Table 3.3

Handicapped Children Served in New York State

Handicapped	Number Served 1975-76[2]	Conservative Estimates of Incidence 1969-70[1]	Per Cent Not Served 1969-70[1]
Educable Mentally Retarded	40,095	64,297	33
Trainable Mentally Retarded	15,584	11,870	--
Hearing-Impaired	5,462	28,439	81
Visually Handicapped	2,574	4,946	37
Speech-Impaired	103,711	173,107	31
Physically Handicapped	30,344	24,730	33
Brain Injured and Learning Disabilities	N.A.[b]	49,459	86
Emotionally Handicapped	40,046	98,918	72
Miscellaneous	N.A.[b]	3,462	--
Total number of Handicapped	238,813	459,228	45
Total enrollment in state	3,460,015		

1. The Fleischmann Report on Quality, Cost and Financing of Elementary and Secondary Education in New York State, 1972, Volume 2, p. 168.

2. The Basic Education Data System - New York State Albany, New York 1975-76.

N.A.[b] - Not Available

In 1973 in New York City, the Riley Reid Decision was rendered which made it mandatory to provide an appropriate educational program for all handicapped children at public expense. As a result, the enrollment of students in handicapped programs in the City has increased by 42 percent as those who had previously been considered too dificult to educate were given service. This increased enrollment has had an effect upon the entire system as it has required an additional staff, new programs and additional or modified facilities. There is some evidence that these gains for the handicapped students have resulted in a reduction in the standard of services provided for other children (Office of the Deputy Chancellor, 1975).

Table 3.4 shows the number of handicapped students receiving instruction within the several different types of school agencies within New York State during the 1975-76 school year. A major comparison is made between the children who are receiving services within BOCES programs and those receiving services from local school districts. Basically, they have served the handicapped students who need the more intensive and supportative types of instructional services. A total of 64 percent of the handicapped population received educational services from the local school districts, 25 percent by BOCES and the reamining seven percent from other institutions or agencies within the state. At this point in time, the Big Five have been excluded from the opportunity of placing their children within a BOCES program so the percentage of students receiving instruction from local districts remains high.

In the area of special classes, BOCES programs are teaching approxi-

Table 3.4

Handicapped Children Receiving Instruction in Schools of New York State

1975 - 1976

Handicaps	Itinerant Services	Resource Rooms	Special Classes	BOCES Itinerant Service	BOCES Resource Rooms	BOCES Special Classes	Other Agencies or Institutions	Other	State Totals
Educable Mentally Retarded	165	2,401	22,646	41	371	7,136	99	817	40,095
Trainable Mentally Retarded	0	50	3,878	8	33	4,529	404	2,261	15,584
Emotional Disturbed	305	3,300	18,472	66	883	5,033	281	4,488	40,046
Serious Speech Impaired	998	982	33	330	0	58	8	24	2,723
Other Speech Impaired	90,519	2,153	1,733	5,841	50	140	8	512	100,988
Deaf	91	198	693	58	25	157	33	166	3,292
Hard of Hearing	602	396	83	314	99	248	8	74	2,170
Legally Blind	173	215	149	297	8	25	17	219	1,353
Partially Sighted	215	363	116	347	8	25	0	16	1,221
Physically Handicapped	280	2,459	13,167	116	1,031	3,762	272	5,823	30,344
Total	93,200	12,524	60,968	7,417	2,508	26,582	1,130	13,341	238,813

Source: The Basic Education Data System - New York State - Albany, New York 1975-76.

mately one third of the mentally retarded children. The largest itinerant services of both local districts and BOCES are directed at providing services for the speech impaired child. The itinerant teacher is able to provide special services for children on a once a week or more frequent basis.

The cardinal responsibility for the basic educational program for all children rests with the local school system. If a district does not feel that it can provide the necessary services, then the district must make the arrangements for meeting the needs of special children with another agency. Once a child is placed, the district's obligation does not really end. The districts have a responsibility to evaluate periodically the services which children are receiving and to establish if the program is still relevant to the child's needs.

School Staff

Another variable in providing an educational program for handicapped children is the school's professional staff. The first organization to be concerned with providing training and research for special education teachers was the Society of Educational Research which was organized in New York City in 1903. Until the 1920's, however, there were very few teachers trained to work with exceptional/handicapped children, and basically, none had researched the field sufficiently to be classified as a specialist. The depression and World War II slowed down the process of creating programs to prepare such teachers and most classroom teachers remained ill-prepared to handle children with a handicap. By the end of the

war, economic conditions were better and interest in providing for the education of handicapped students increased along with special educational programs for teachers in colleges and universities.

Table 3.5 shows a growth of approximately 38 percent of college training programs from 1949 to 1976. Training programs for teachers of children categorized as learning disabled and emotionally disturbed are new since the 1954 report. Today, 43 institutions are providing training programs for teachers of children with learning disabilities and 45 schools and colleges are training teachers to work with emotionally disturbed children. The area of mentally retarded employs the largest percentage of teachers. Correspondingly, more colleges and universities have programs in this area than in any other special educational category. A shortage of teachers remains, however, in that only 49 percent of the needed number of teachers are available to provide the special services to this group of students. For the area of emotionally disturbed, only 15 percent of the needed personnel are trained to work with this group (Annual Report Fiscal Year 1969: 6).

New York State reported in 1976 that it had a total of 60 institutions of higher learning providing a special education course sequence. Included were 34 teacher training instructional programs for working with the mentally retarded, 25 programs for speech and hearing difficulties, 6 programs for the crippled and 35 general special education programs. Most of the 60 institutions offer more than one program. Each training program is registered by the state to grant certificates in the specialized areas.

Table 3.5

Development of Higher Education Instruction
in the Area of Special Education

Type of Programs	1949*	1954*	1976**
Blind	7	3	22
Crippled	8	13	23
Deaf	17	22	41
Hard of Hearing	25	68	154
Speech Handicap	66	115	154
Socially Maladjusted	4	10	N.A.
Mentally Retarded	22	40	198
Total Number of Institutions	77	122	293

*Cruickshank, William M. and G. Orville Jackson (eds.). Education of Exceptional Children and Youth. (Englewood Cliff, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.)

**Marquis Academic Media. Yearbook of Special Education 1975-1976. (Chicago, Illinois: Marquis Who's Who, Inc., 1976).

N.A. - Not Available

In the 1969 annual report of the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped reported that 390,527 professional personnel were needed to provide adequate services for the handicapped population. However, only 124,527 certified teachers were actually employed. This number was approximately 32% of those that were actually needed. By 1975, the situation was not substantially different. That year, the Commissioner of Education reported:

> "Before schools will be able to provide education programs for the entire population of handicapped children, there will have to be substantial improvement in the personnel picture. At present, a little over half of the handicapped children in the Nation are being served. Approximately 40 percent of the 240,000 teachers not in service need additional instruction to become eligible for professional certification as special educators. The current production of 30,000 new teachers a year is only keeping up with the demands created by attrition in the field and the need to fill open slots. At least 200,000 more teachers are needed in preschools, elementary schools, and secondary schools if all handicapped children are to be served. (Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1975: 38.)

Public Law 94-142 creates several conditions which may effect the the number of special education teachers needed and may have a serious impact on the training which the regular classroom teacher will need in the future. The law precipitated the concepts of the "least restrictive environment" and an individualized educational plan for each student. It will be extremely difficult to implement the concept of "least restrictive environment" or "mainstreaming" unless regular classroom teachers have specialized training. The implementation of the IEP's will be a difficult matter for some districts unless additional teachers and staff members are

hired to help with the additional work load (Semmel and Hernmiller, 1977). In general, the entire field has experienced a constant growth pattern during the last quarter of a century. Since 1965, however, the field may have possibly over extended itself too rapidly to try and meet the needs of the public schools. Some evaluations of the situation indicate that in order to meet the demands, teaching programs are sacrificing highly desired quality for greater quantity of special education personnel (Cruickshank and Johnson, 1975).

The question arises as to what effect will the new laws have upon the number and quality of teacher training programs? Will the institutions of higher learning be able to increase the supply in such a way as to prevent an even greater gap in the supply of special education teachers? Can the surplus capacity for preparing regular teachers be usefully converted to meet this new demand? Jackson (1966) has admonished that the efficiency and effectiveness of any special education program is subject to the training of the teachers within the system.

Transportation

Transportation is an important and substantial consideration in providing appropriate services for the handicapped. Many handicapped students attend school facilities which are at a distance from their homes and are unable to travel without some kind of supervision and special equipment.

Numerous factors must be considered in planning transportation schedules such as: the security and safety of children, the availability of vehicles,

the number of students who need a particular type of vehicle, and the adaptability of the vehicle for loading and unloading the children. Another problem challenging educators is the planning of bus routes for handicapped children since they are relatively few in number and live scattered throughout a district. It is not uncommon for handicapped children to ride a bus up to an hour and a half one way. This means that if handicapped children are to start school the same time as other children, they must leave 45 minutes before other children. If they leave at the same time as other children, their school day is substantially shortened. Children who are already handicapped do not need the additional strain of a long bus ride or the experience of a shortened school day. The more that handicapped children are placed within the mainstream of education, the less likely this matter of distance and time of transportation will be a problem. But this is not always possible. To reduce travel time, some districts have introduced a feeder system whereby children are brought to a prearranged transfer point and placed on larger "express" coaches. Whatever methods are used by a district to transport the children to the school, the administrators must be sure that the handicapped children are reasonably comfortable and safe.

The cost of transporting handicapped children often becomes an issue. Special equipment is costly and community people frequently have difficulty seeing the justification of large and expensive pieces of equipment for so relatively few students. For example, in New York City in 1975-76, it was estimated that the yearly cost for transporting a "normal" child to school was $61 per student as compared to $1,005 for a severely handicapped

child. However, the majority of regular program students within the City walk to school as compared to providing transportation services for all handicapped students.

In addition to transportation costs, another problem arises, particularly in urban areas. When handicapped students are bused to a school outside their neighborhood for the purpose of "grouping" them in special classes, it is necessary for the handicapped student to remain at school for the entire day. Neighborhood schools do not usually retain their regular students for lunch and therefore lack proper facilities to provide adequate lunch services. In addition, some personnel resent or do not wish to be responsible during this period for the supervision of handicapped students.

Special Facilities

Wolf (1967) stated that the needs and physical limitations of handicapped students must be considered when designing an educational facility. If a classroom is to be used by a group of crippled children, it needs to be larger than for another group of students who may be deaf. For the deaf student, the room needs to be equipped in such a way as to aid the teacher in projecting audio-visual materials for the child. Schools which provide services for the handicapped must have ramps, elevators, handrails, wide hallways, easily accessible lavatories and toilet facilities and sturdy equipment in all areas. In the past, most public schools were not designed with the handicapped student in mind. The hallways are too narrow for handrails and many facilities are multistories without

elevators or ramps.

Cruickshank (1975) states that, when given an opportunity, those who are closely related to working with handicapped students can contribute excellent ideas for a functional school building. A good example of this in Public School #84 in Buffalo, New York. When a new facility was to be built for the physically and multi-handicapped students, it was the faculty and staff who designed most of the features of the facility. Teachers and staff were aware of problems such as: handicapped children who can not open doors, loading and unloading children from buses, positional placement of drinking fountains and the need for appropriate sized storage space for all the paraphernalia that is used in working with handicapped students. However, not all districts are able to design a new facility for their handicapped students and must modify or alter existing building.

The recent mandate of Public Law 94-142 to place children in a "least restrictive environment" is creating a serious problem for most districts. To comply with the law, districts will have to alter or modernize their existing facilities. With already tight budgets and minimal outside support, the financing of these alterations becomes a heavy burden imposed upon districts. More often than not, it may create an air of resentment within the district.

Administrative Organizational Structure

The size of the district, its philosophy and goals and its basic organizational pattern affect the style and organization of its special

educational programs, Cruickshank (1975) concluded that most school districts should have a separate unit which administers the program and determines the line/staff relationship and responsibilities. Cruickshank concluded further, that the administrative unit should be designed so as to have a maximum amount of interaction with the remainder of the system. Others feel that special education is no different than any other program within a system, and should therefore not have any unique lines of authority (Wilken, 1975; Lilly, 1975).

The Reid decision in 1973 placed rather severe strains upon the Division of Special Education and Pupil Personnel Services in New York City and effected its organizational structure. The Division of Special Education operates 35 districts within the boundaries of the city. Those districts are not necessarily coterminous with the community districts developed when the city decentralized in the early 70's. Within each of the 33 community districts is a committee for the handicapped, whose responsibility is to work with school personnel in obtaining as quickly as possible the placement of handicapped students. The responsibilities of these district committees is the same as that for other districts in the state and have been discussed elsewhere.

The Division of Special Education and Pupil Personnel Services, the suprastructure for the 35 special education districts, is so large and complex that nine bureaus have been developed within the Division. Six of the bureaus concentrate on particular handicaps while the other three deal with pupil personnel services. Because much of the Division's growth has been unplanned and uncoordinated, it has not always provided an inte-

grated service system. New York City is the largest district in the state and many of its administrative features and problems are unique because of the volume of students in its programs (Office of Deputy Chancellor, 1975).

New York State has tried to use BOCES as a possible solution to educating handicapped children in rural and suburban areas. The major objectives for BOCES programs are to meet the needs of each child and to arrange a program that will constantly keep in mind the child's level of progress (LCER, June 28, 1976).

As created, BOCES has a special role in overcoming the population sparcity constraint. Pupil populations and resources from several local districts can be united to meet the special needs of their handicapped students. These services are purchased from BOCES through contracts involving two or more districts; however, the local board of education remainsresponsible for the child's education no matter who provides the necessary services.

There are two general formats for BOCES programs for the handicapped. One type brings all handicapped students to one single facility where classes and services are provides to meet their individual needs. The other type follows the philosophy that the handicapped child needs to be in the regular classroom building being mainstreamed as much as possible.

Another type of delivery system is illustrated by Public School #84 in Buffalo. This is perhaps the closest to a regional type of school anywhere in the state. The school was established to provide medical and educational opportunities for western New York children who, because of

the severity of their handicaps, are unable to attend a regular school. This school is presently providing services for handicapped students from four adjacent counties with the counties paying for medical expenses. Sixty percent of its 200 students are from districts outside of Buffalo. These districts pay the Buffalo school district $1745 per student for educational services rendered.

The school is operated jointed by the Buffalo Board of Education and Erie County through the county's E. J. Meyer Memorial Hospital. The Buffalo Board of Education provides the following services: educational staff, instructional supplies, instructional equipment, and transportation for Buffalo residents. Transportation is provided for non-resident children by their own local school districts. Meyer Hospital provides for the operation and maintenance of the building, the medical nursing staff, physical therapy, occupational therapy, clinics and laboratory facilities, and lunches.

The educational program at Public School #84 is conducted on three levels of instruction: the regular graded program, the ungraded program, and the life adjustment program. This type of program in combination with its special type of facility requires very expensive equipment and highly skilled professional staff; but, regional cooperation makes it affordable.

Special Education Programs

In 1960, a study in California established a list of five ways in which a school could organize its programs for handicapped children. As one examines the special education programs within this state, one can

see much similarity between the New York and California arrangements. The five arrangements are:

1. Segregated Plan: Special class or a school not in the same site as the regular school.

2. Partial Segregated Plan: A section of the regular school was reserved for special education with no plan to integrate children with the regular classroom activities.

3. Cooperative Plan: Special education class in which pupils may spend a portion of the day in the regular classroom.

4. Resource Room: Students are placed in the regular classroom, and comes to the resource room and the special education teacher only for materials and special training.

5. Itinerant Teacher: Pupils are registered in the regular classroom, doing all his work with the regular classroom teacher, and receives periodic specialized training, help and materials from a traveling special education teacher. (Thomas, 1967, p. 12)

Further explanations of these approaches are discussed in Appendix III.

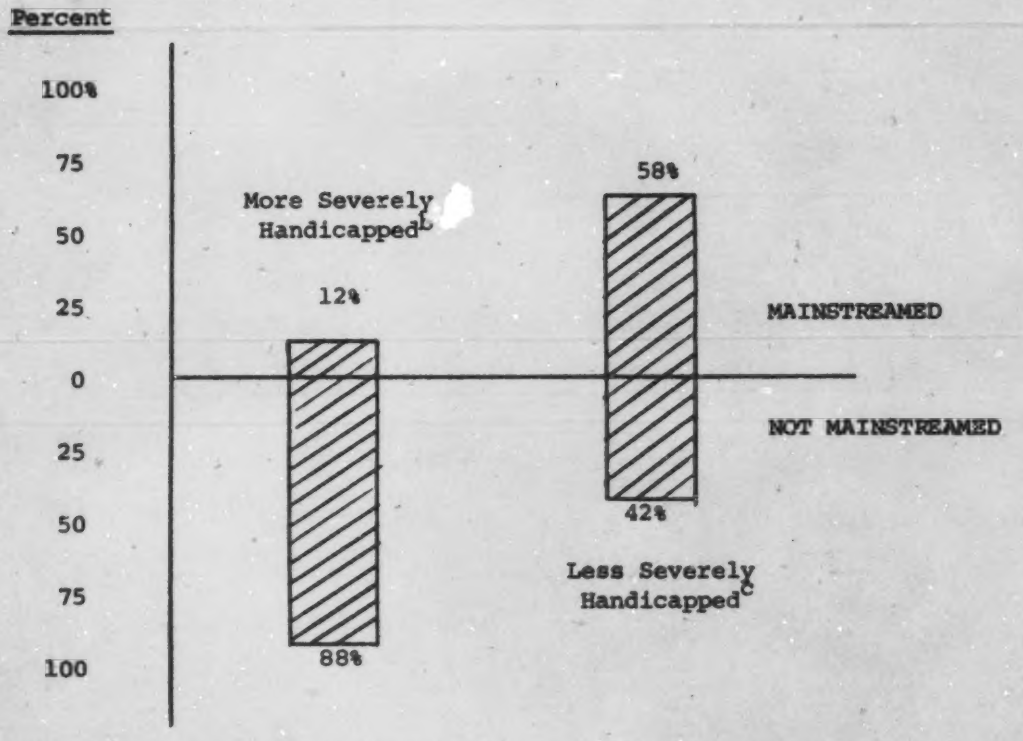
Diagram II shows that 42 percent of the children within New York State who are considered less than severely handicapped are still receiving their education within some sort of restrictive environment. In many schools, the more severely handicapped or distruptive child is not accepted into a regular program because of the phychological "threat" he presents to the "normal" child. Therefore, an even smaller percentage of severely handicapped children are mainstreamed and approximately 88% of the severely handicapped students will be in a segregated situation.

The New York State Commissioner of Education has set limits on the maximum number of children who are to be enrolled in certain programs or classes leaving little discretion to local districts for planning their

Diagram II

Percent of Children Mainstreamed Statewide in Local School Districts by Handicapping Conditions

1974-75[a]



[a] Does not include New York City.

[b] TMR, Severely Emotionally Distrubed, Deaf, Legally Blind, Severely Crippled and Health Impaired, Severe Neurologically Brain Injured, Severe Speech Impaired, Multiple Handicapped.

[c] EMR, Other Disturbed, Hard of Hearing, Partially Sighted, Other Crippled and Health Impaired, Other Brain Injured, Other Speech Impaired.

Source: Legislative Commission on Expenditure Review. Boards of Cooperative Educational Services Programs. 3.1.76, June 28, 1976.

program structure. These limits are reported in Table 3.6. Although the state is encouraging local school districts to mainstream as many of their handicapped students as possible into the regular program, no standards exist as to the number of handicaped students who can be placed into a given classroom.

BOCES has created several types of program structures to assist local districts. These include: Learning Problems Program, Comprehensive Support Service Program and Disability Program. The Learning Problem Program is for students who are identified by local districts as having problems adjusting to a normal school program. The general labels used to identify these students are "learning disability," "emotionally disturbed," and "minimal brain dysfunction". The program quality is affected by the relationship that exists between the local school district and the BOCES staff. The more integrated the program, the more opportunity there is to provide for individual needs. The BOCES teacher is responsible to a BOCES supervisor and to the building principal where the program is located.

In Nassau County, the Board of Cooperative Educational Services (BOCES) operates one of the nation's few modified high schools for students who have a history of brain injury, learning disability, or emotional disturbance. The teacher operates upon the premise that deviant behavior is capable of change. The curriculum includes academic subjects such as reading, language and mathematics, along with vocational offerings, parent involvement, direct work experience and assistance with the social and behavioral changes required to make a satisfactory adjustment

Table 3.6

Maximum Class Sizes for Varicus Types of Handicapped Programs

	Physically Handicapped	Emotional reasons	Educable Mentally retarded	Trainable Mentally retarded	Resource Room Enrollment
Elementary	10	10	15	10	15
Secondary	15	10	18	12	15

Other class sizes vary upon the needs of the children.

in the community at large. The success of the program is evident in the fact that over two hundred fifty students "whose volatility prior to their admission to CDC (Carrer Development Center) cannot be denied," now gather willingly each day (Collella, 1973: 118).

Under the Comprehensive Support Services Program, BOCES plays a less direct role than in any of the other special education programs because most services are provided at the local district level. BOCES provides and supervises only the work of the support teachers and specialists. They also conduct inservice programs to permit teachers the opportunity of acquiring additional technical knowledge and understanding of particular behavior problems. The building principal is responsible for implementing the Comprehensive Support Services Program within his building. Some schools may have as many as five comprehensive support service teachers while others will not have any.

The majority of children in the Hearing Disability Program are in the primary grades; however, there are students enrolled at all levels. The major emphasis is on a resource room program and an itinerant teacher who visits students in their home schools. The local district staff is involved in this program because the child attends regular classes. The resource and itinerant teachers (BOCES staff) are to be in close communication with regular classroom teachers.

Special education administrators tend to agree that, if a child needs such services, then he should be placed within a school that has the services. They further believe that no child can come to a resource room from another building and then return to his school for classes. This

type of arrangement is difficult to control and makes it difficult to maintain effective communication with the child's teacher. It is possible for students from different districts to attend a resource room in a school operated by another district.

Summary

Educators have considered varying methods and styles of delivering special educational services to the handicapped; however, to date, no uniform delivery style has evolved. Within the northeast, there is an equal number of states using and not using segregated classrooms. In the south, there is a greater tendency to use resource rooms and mainstreaming as a means of helping the handicapped student.

New York State is little different from most states in that it has tried the gamut of methods and structures for providing for the handicapped. Most districts, because of size and population, have not been able to provide all of their own services. They have had to combine their resources to provide the necessary services through BOCES or other cooperative arrangement.

Chapter IV

Financing of Special Education Programs

With the increased pressure and attention on the problem of educating handicapped children, educators are being forced to re-evaluate the programs, methods and financing being used in the schools. In Mills vs. the Washington D.C. Board of Education, it was ruled that all handicapped students have a constitutional right to a publicly supported education. The decision in this case stated that:

> If sufficient funds are not available to finance all the services and programs that are needed and desirable in the system, then the available funds must be expended equitably in such a manner that no child is entirely excluded from a publicly supported education . . . The inadequacies of the . . . public school system whether occasioned by insufficient funding or administrative inefficiency, certainly cannot be permitted to bear more heavily on the "exceptional" or handicapped child than a "normal" child (Mills vs. Board of Education of District of Columbia, 348 F Supp at 876).

Opinions are divided as to the best methods for financing programs for handicapped children. Wilken (1976) concluded that there is a strong relationship between the amount of money that a state allocates to special education and its overall commitment to education. There are exceptions, however. California and Rhode Island are both among the top 10 states providing the largest per pupil expenditures for special education aid but are below the national average in total educational expenditures per unit for all children.

The Council for Exceptional Children has identified two fundamental types of support formulas for providing additional assistance to school districts for financing handicapped programs. They are the unit formula and the per pupil formula. The Per Pupil formula is defined as the allo-

cation of funds for a particular program on the basis of the number of children enrolled whereas the unit formula is the allocation of money for a "group" of students. The unit formula is subdivided into two types, the pure unit formula and the unit formula as a percent of reimbursement (Deighton, 1971).

Alabama and Florida are two states which adhere to the pure unit formula. Florida, for example, allows one unit for each 10 children in special education classes as well as an adjustment for transportation costs. In Florida, handicapped students receive from 2.3 to 15.0 times as much state aid per full time equivalent as the "normal" child depending upon the nature of handicap. According to the Florida Department of Education, this has resulted in an abundance of students being diagnosed as handicapped and assigned to full time self-contained classrooms for special programs rather than being placed in the least restrictive environment (Florida Department of Education, 1974).

Virginia and South Dakota adhere to the use of the unit formula as a percentage of reimbursement. In Virginia, sixty percent of the cost of the teachers' salaries for handicapped children is reimbursed by the state. In the case of visiting teachers, Virginia allows sixty percent of the hourly rate to be reimbursed except when a child is hospitalized. Then the entire cost of educating that child is provided by the state. South Dakota's formula provides complete reimbursement by the state if the program is approved.

The Council for Exceptional Children has classified per pupil formulas into three sub-divisions: straight sum, excess cost and weightings.

The straight sum reimbursement allocates a specified amount for each handicapped child within a particular category regardless of the size and wealth of the school district. In the case of Arizona, $600 is allocated for each trainable mentally retarded child in addition to the general state aid per pupil reimbursement. All other categories of handicapped children are aided at the rate of $200 per pupil.

The excess cost formula allows a district to figure a general cost per handicapped pupil minus the cost of educating non-handicapped children within the same district. Pennsylvania has used the excess cost formula and has placed no limits upon the amounts that the state will reimburse the districts. In Tennessee, a $300 limit has been placed on the amount that the state will pay for each child. Michigan reimburses only a portion of the excess cost per pupil depending on the total amount appropriated by the legislature for this expenditure. Wilken (1976) concluded after an extensive study of the cost of educating handicapped children in the public schools during the 1972 fiscal year that the excess cost seems to be about $509 per handicapped student. When figured on the total enrollment basis, the cost was about $30 for each child enrolled in public school. Table 4.1 summarizes excess cost expenditures for handicapped children in several states. Pennsylvania, for example, was spending $768 per pupil more for the education of handicapped children than for other children. This was 78.8 percent above the current expenditure for all children enrolled in the public school. Wilken (1976: 12) reported that availability of service in states which spent the most on education of handicapped were not as "susceptible to demographic, socio-economic or

Table 4.1

Selected State & Local Excess Cost Expenditure Per Handicapped Child Ages 4 to 21 Served in Special Education Programs Relative to Current Expenditures for all Programs Per Enrolled Pupil - Fiscal Year 1971-1972

	Excess Cost Per Pupil Enrolled in Public School	Excess Cost Per Handicapped Pupil Served in Special Education	
		Total	Percent of Current Expenditure Per Pupil Enrolled in Public School
Total Average for all 50 states	$30	$ 509	58.98
Alabama	12	461	90.2
Alaska	45	2344	199.8
California	42	667	79.7
Connecticut	63	1327	124.7
Delaware	71	1184	122.2
Florida	39	602	81.1
Hawaii	36	729	77.1
Iowa	32	590	64.5
Kentucky	19	607	104.1
Maryland	35	502	53.0
Mississippi	2	83	14.0
Nevada	36	899	129.2
New Jersey	47	724	65.0
New Mexico	15	544	79.4
New York	NR	---	-----
North Dakota	20	320	47.8
Ohio	NR	---	-----
Oklahoma	6	173	30.4
Pennsylvania	47	768	78.8
South Carolina	20	335	51.7
Texas	32	524	62.0
Virginia	27	666	84.8
Washington	72	914	125.4
Wyoming	21	238	41.4

Source: Wilken, Williams, and et. al. "State Aid for Special Education: Who Benefits?" National Conference of State Legislators. (Washington D.C.: National Foundation for the Improvement of Education, Oct. 1, 1976)

regional characterization as the others."

The weighted formula is used by some states in determining and paying aid to districts for their handicapped students. New Mexico, for example, uses a multiplier in determining the reimbursement for the handicapped children (Deighton, 1971).

In 1974, Rossmiller conducted a study in which he evaluated 24 school districts in five states. Each of the districts evaluated was supposed to offer high quality programs for handicapped students. Rossmiller identified six major expenditure categories which are relevant to both special education and general education. These categories were compared in order to establish cost indices for the two types of programs; a cost index of 1.00 represented the amount a district spent per student in their general education programs in grades 1-6. These "indices" were computed by dividing per pupil cost of special education by the per pupil cost of regular education. The indices assume that programs for both categories have the same basic cost plus the additional cost of special education resources. Considering the median school district range, the indices showed a low of 1.14 for programs for the intellectually gifted to a high of 3.64 for programs for the physically handicapped. Tables A through F in Appendix IV demonstrate how the program cost indices for special education may be used to determine the expected excess cost for special education programs for several districts with differing demographic characteristics in New York State. Table 4.2 summarizes the estimated special education program expenditures for these districts.

Table 4.3 shows the difference in the estimated special education

Table 4.2

Expected Special Education Program Expenditures for Handicapped Children based upon the Rossmiller Formula for selected districts in New York State (see Appendix VI)

Category of Exceptionality	Attica	Rome	Oneonta	Syracuse	Levittown	Great Neck
Gifted	1355	1446	1748	1819	2337	3815
Educable Mentally Retarded	2223	2371	2867	2985	3834	6258
Trainable Mentally Retarded	2496	2663	3219	3352	4305	7029
Auditorily handicapped	3555	3791	4584	4772	6130	10,007
Visually handicapped	3531	3766	4553	4740	6089	9940
Speech handicapped	1403	1496	1809	1883	2419	3949
Physically handicapped	4328	4616	5580	5809	7462	12,183
Speech Learning Disorders	2568	2739	3311	3447	4428	7230
Emotionally Disturbed	3365	3588	4338	4517	5802	9472
Multiple handicapped	3246	3462	4185	4358	5596	9137
Homebound/ Hospital	1688	1801	2176	2266	2911	4753
Regular Programs	1189	1168	1533	1596	2058	3347

Table 4.3

Estimated Excess Cost of Special Education Programs with the Cost of Special Education Subtracted from the Regular Program Costs based on the Rossmiller Formula for Selected Districts in New York State

(see Appendix IV)

Category of Exceptionality	Attica	Rome	Oneonta	Syracuse	Levittown	Great Neck
Gifted	166	178	215	223	287	468
Educable Mentally Retarded	1034	1103	1334	1389	1784	2911
Trainable Mentally Retarded	1307	1395	1686	1756	2255	3682
Auditorily handicapped	2366	2523	3051	3176	4080	6660
Visually handicapped	2342	2498	3020	3144	4039	6593
Speech handicapped	214	228	276	287	369	602
Phsyically handicapped	3139	3348	4047	4213	5412	8836
Speech Learning Disorders	1379	1471	1778	1851	2378	3883
Emotionally Disturbed	2176	2320	2805	2921	3752	6125
Multiple handicapped	2057	2194	2652	2762	3546	5790
Homebound/ Hospital	499	533	643	670	861	1406

expenditure and the general educational cost per pupil for the selected districts. Based on these estimates, a child in a program for the visually handicapped could cost the district additionally between $2343 and $6593. In Syracuse the total cost is estimated at $4740 (see Appendix IV, Table C), whereas in Great Neck, the cost would be $10,000 (see Appendix IV, Table F). Rossmiller's method for figuring program costs has an advantage because it is not "limited", since it is a ratio of the regular cost of any specific year to the special education cost in the comparable year (Rice, 1975; Johns, 1973, Vol. 3).

In another study, the following median services delivery cost indices were developed for Minnesota school districts:

Regular classroom with special consultant . .	1.866
Regular classroom with itinerant teacher . .	1.50
Regular classroom with resource room	2.00
Part-time special education classroom	1.60
Self-contained classroom	1.67
Homebound or hospitalized instruction	1.34

This study has been critized because of its limited sample; however, it does imply several things which are worthy of note including the finding that mainstreamed classes may be more costly than the traditional segregated classroom (Rice, 1975).

New York City has recently conducted a cost analysis of handicapped programs in which three different methods are used for calculating the program costs for the handicapped. The first method, called the "all-inclusive method", considers all of the funds received and spent by the Board of Education for all public school pupils for a nine month period.

For special education, this sums up all of the Division of Special Education and Pupil Personnel Services cost components plus system-wide administration and support service expenditure pro-rated for handicapped children. This method is justified on the premise that cost is the total of all expenditures related either directly or indirectly to operation regardless of whether such expenditures are aimed primarily at serving the education purpose of the program or not.

The second method used by the city is the "basic education program method." This method provides the most accurate estimate of actual cost. It excludes any cost for supportive activities and services which are either experimental or primarily non-educational in nature. Expenditures under the Comprehensive Employment Training Act are excluded because the funds are provided wholly by the federal government and for purposes primarily unrelated to providing programs for the handicapped.

The third method used for calculating program costs is the "Rossmiller Method" which was discussed above. Using Rossmiller's method for New York City, the calculated cost per pupil of the regular program is $1,853. For the educable mentally retarded, the cost is 1.87 times higher, or $3,465 per pupil. Five of the eight programs came within 10% of the expected cost for providing the services using Rossmiller's ratios. However, three programs are materially more costly than would be expected. Table 4.4 shows the results of the projections and makes comparisons with actual cost.

In 1975-76 the city estimated the total cost for educating the severly handicapped child to be $6,934 as compared to $2,294 (a figure from the

Table 4.4

Rossmiller Method Expected Cost of Special Education Programs in Public Schools of New York City 1975-1976

	Rossmiller Index	Expected Cost	Actual Cost	Percent Difference
Regular Pupil	1.00	$1,853	$1,853	
Educable Mentally Retarded	1.87	3,465	3,909	+13%
Trainable Mentally Retarded	2.10	3,891	4,947	+27
Auditorily Handicapped	2.99	5,540	5,593	+1
Visually Handicapped	2.97	5,503	5,358	+1
Physically Handicapped	3.64	6,745	6,342	-6
Speech Handicapped	1.18	2,187	2,041	-7
Emotionally Disturbed	2.83	5,244	5,767	+10
Multiple Handicapped	2.73	5,059	9,605	+90

Source: Office of the Deputy Chancellor. The Cost of Educating Handicapped Pupils in New York City. New York City: Board of Education of the City of New York, January, 1977, p. 47.

basic educational method calculation) for the regular program. During this period the city received approximately $2,868 and $632 respectively in the form of general and transportation aid. The difference between cost and aid shows that, for the severely handicapped, the city needed an additional $4,066 per student of local monies as compared to $1,662 for the regular program for the normal student. The difference between the local cost for the regular program as compared to the program for the severely handicapped is approximately 2.5 times more money (Office of Chancellor, 1977: 52-55).

In 1975, Rice did a study comparing the cost and quality of special education programs associated with the nine largest BOCES in New York State with the handicapped student population of the smallest being just under 600. He concluded that the greater the difference between the average cost of educating special education students and general education students:

> the less likelihood of normalizing experience for special education students,
>
> the lower percentage of special education students attending mainstreaming classes,
>
> the higher the percentage of severely handicapped students included in special education programs, and
>
> the higher the percentage of special education students excluded from public schools (Rice, 1975).

As the cost of special education programs continues to increase, there is an inclination in New York to remove the higher cost special education students from the public schools and to place them in state aided private facilities.

Aid for special education is now the largest growing component of state aid. At the turn of the century, aid to the handicapped accounted for less than $200 million or about 3 percent of all state aid (Manse and McLooney, 1960). By 1975 the allocation had increased to 2.1 billion dollars or about 8 percent of the state and federal aid monies paid (Wilken, 1976). In 1976, the U.S. Bureau for Education of Handicapped estimated expenditures of more than 4.7 billion dollars to be spent by state and local governments for the education of exceptional children.

Wilken (1976) states that the 1972 statistics show state aid for special education was approximately fifty percent greater than the per pupil cost for transportation and more than 100 percent greater than that for vocational education. Even then it was not sufficient to provide services for all the handicapped children still in need of special services. Table 4.5 shows the special education aid paid by various states to local districts. The average aid for the country was $321 per handicapped pupil served, which is approximately 4.7 percent of the total amount of aid paid to districts. New York State designated no specific amount for handicapped programs in 1972; but by 1975, New York State was allocating approximately $196,560,000 for special education programs.

In his study, Wilken (1976) further demonstrated that the most extensive and costly programs for handicapped children are located in communities populated by professional and managerial people while smaller programs are usually located in communities populated by workers and the poorly educated. State aid formulas appear to have provided the greatest amount of help to the rich suburban areas, while rural and city districts

Table 4.5

Special Educational Aid From
State Source to Local Districts
Fiscal Year 1972

	Sp. Education Aid from State Sources		Sp. Ed.
	Per Handicapped Pupil Served	Per Enrolled Pupil	Aid as a % of Total Aid
Total Average for 50 states	$ 321	$19	4.7%
Alaska	2183	41	3.6
Arkansas	253	1	0.4
California	483	30	10.7
Delaware	1054	63	8.4
Florida	410	26	5.9
Idaho	226	20	8.1
Indiana	43	3	1.1
Kentucky	479	15	4.8
Minnesota	265	20	2.9
Nevada	566	22	6.7
New Jersey	329	21	5.9
New Mexico	519	85	2.4
New York	0	0	0
Ohio	378	27	9.9
North Dakota	75	4	1.7
Pennsylvania	547	34	6.6
South Dakota	79	2	1.6
Tennesee	274	14	4.6
Texas	426	26	6.8
Virginia	248	30	3.2
Wyoming	131	8	2.4

Source: Wilken, Williams and et. al., "State Aid for Special Education: Who Benefits?" National Conference of State Legislatures (Washington, D.C. National Foundation for the Improvement of Education, October 1, 1976).

have faced increasing financial difficulties and/or meager programs.

In New York State, with the adoption of the Cole-Rice Law of 1925, special education was aided through categorical funding. In 1962, categorical aids were replaced with the adoption of the Diefendorf formula because often times districts placed children into special education programs just so that they could receive special state funding (Fleischmann, 1972, Vol. 2).

> . . . the Diefendorf formula . . . increased the level of general state support to local districts for all pupils, thus establishing an adjustable support formula based upon district wealth in relation to a state-established operating expense ceiling. In the process, special categorical aids including those pertaining to the education of children with special needs were abandoned. The rationale was that local school districts would be eligible for a significant increase in state support, thereby insuring equitable financial support of special education (Rice, 1975: 8).

With the adoption of the Diefendorf formula, the financial incentives for district operated programs for the handicapped were removed. The movement to help the handicapped child was hindered rather than advanced in most districts. Categorical aid was still available for programs operated through BOCES except for large city districts which educated about half of the state's children.

The New York State Legislature enacted the Educational Law known as Chapter 241 in 1974 to correct certain aid inequities. As discussed earlier, one of Chapter 241's major objectives was to finance equal educational opportunities for all students. Rott (1974) concluded that the impact of this new school aid formula was fourfold: (a) to provide for equalization among local school districts, (b) to eliminate the inequities

which existed in the support formula, (c) to reduce the number of state aid options, and (d) to increase the weighting for children with special education because of handicaps. The legislation provided a double weighting for handicapped children in computing state aid for local school districts thereby restoring categorical aid for district operated programs outside the large cities. This caused school districts to reexamine the financial and program desirability of providing programs for the handicapped locally rather than through BOCES. Of the nine BOCES districts studied by LCER, the Steuben/Allegany BOCES was "hurt" sufficiently enough by this legislation to cause it to discontinue its program for the handicapped. Elsewhere enrollment in BOCES programs have declined, especially for children with less severe handicaps as more and more children are served directly through their home districts.

Large cities are provided categorical aid for handicapped children through Special Services aid which uses a slightly different system of classifications and weightings. Under these aid provisions, the categories of severe (with a weight of 3.0) and non-severe (with a weight of 2.0) are used while other school districts employ the terminology of educable mentally retarded, multiple handicap, etc., all of which are aided through a weighting of 2.0. Further, state regulations regard blindness and brain injury as a "non-severe" handicap even though the conditions are usually considered severe by professionals within the field. Children with these problems are usually placed in programs requiring resources similar to children with multiple handicaps.

Another pervasive problem is that districts receive their state aid

based upon average daily attendance for the fall semester of the previous year. Attendance in special education programs is usually lowest at that time. This creates a condition whereby districts have to provide the necessary educational services for the newly identified children solely from local funds.

Suburban districts still tend to place their handicapped children in a BOCES rather than a local district program because of the economics of scale and/or because the BOCES aid formula is more favorable than the district aid formula. BOCES programs tend to be more of a segregated, non-generic type of program, with the local districts providing low-cost special education programs. A higher percentage of the severely handicapped students are provided for by the BOCES programs than by local programs.

Section 4407 of the Education Law of New York State (Article 89, Chapter 786) which was enacted in 1957 has remained in continuous effect. It was intended to help severely handicapped students who could not receive services from the public school system. The state originally paid an annual sum of $2,000 for each handicapped student who was in a private institution. By 1973, over 7,300 cases were receiving aid under this act. The state was paying roughly 15 million dollars to over 200 private facilities for the education of handicapped children who might not have been served at all or received an education entirely at their parents expense. The law did not intend to provide programs for districts that found the education of handicapped children financially inconvenient. Such may not be justifiable politically, financially, or programmatically, but there

is an increasing number of special education pupils financed through the 4403 and 4407 provisions (Guarino and Sage, 1972),

Section 4403 originally established the means by which a handicapped student was placed in a private school through the channel of family court. This procedure has been altered by its amendment in 1976. Now a school district may directly contract with private institutions for the education of handicapped children and the aid is paid on an excess cost basis.

Summary and Suggestions

In recent years, a number of financial studies have been done in the field of special education. Legislation, court cases and educational studies have caused educators to push for vast improvements in the educational policies, patterns, and services for handicapped students. The Fleischmann report of 1972 concluded that New York State was not adequately providing for this group of students -- the facts still indicate that there are those handicapped students within the state who are not receiving the appropriate services which they need to progress in our society.

In order for federal, state and local systems to develop a meaningful educational experience for the handicapped child, there must be some sort of agreement on the delineators of special education. Within New York State, the methods for allocating funds for special education are dependent upon such definitions and the size of districts. The large cities use the form of "severe" and "non-severe" handicapping as a base for aid allocations. This terminology will produce a less debilitating effect than the more specific "labeling" categories used by the smaller districts.

A second recommendation has to do with class organization and financing of that organizational structure. The recent desire to place handicapped students within the mainstream of educational programs has produced many financial problems and pressures. Under present financial arrangements, mainstreaming may mean a loss in state and federal funding. Presently, most funding is allocated according to the number of handicapped students within a particular category in segregated settings. The only way of over-coming this is to change the major focus of the receiver of aid from the child to the program. Rather than making allocations on a per pupil base, the allocations should be made upon services needed within districts to provide equally for all children. The funding should provide staff, both medical and educational, for diagnosing and treating problems within the district. The educational staff of the treatment program should include those personnel which provide services on a short term daily basis for handicapped students as well as those providing service in the classroom. This method of funding would hopefully reduce the number of students who are labeled and placed in segregated classrooms in order to maximize state aid.

APPENDIX I

Appendix I

FEDERAL LEGISLATION

Public Law 88-164 - Mental Retardation Facilities Act of 1964. Delegated greater training funds for the handicapped.

Public Law 89-36 - The National Technical Institute for the Deaf Act of 1965. Development of the National Technical Institute for the Deaf. The only program for the deaf at the national secondard level. The program provides post-secondary students the proper circumstances for semi-professional and professional level educational programs.

Public Law 90-567 - Vocational Amendments of 1968. Emphasized the importance of making high quality vocational education programs accessible to the handicapped. Delegated 10 percent of state grants for programs for the handicapped.

Public Law 91-230 - Handicapped Children's Early Assistance Act of 1968. Provided funds for demonstration programs and also involved parents in program planning.

Public Law 92-112 - Rehabilitation Act of 1973. Section 504 - Civil Rights provision signed April 28, 1977 for implementation. The Act States: "At the earliest practical time and in no event later than September 1, 1978, schools must provide a free appropriate education to all qualified handicapped persons in their jurisdiction regardless of the nature of severity of the handicap." In addition, "no organization receiving HEW dollars may discriminate against qualified handicapped persons in hiring, and vocational education and other schools receiving aid must take positive steps to employ and advance in employment qualified handicapped persons."

Public Law 93-380 - Education Amendments of 1974. Approved high levels of aid to states. Important for its specification of due process requirements protecting the rights of the handicapped children. Advocates the concept of placing handicapped children in the "least restrictive environment" commensureate with their needs.

Public Law 94-142 - The Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975. Dominating purpose of the Act, "... to assure that all handicapped children have available to them ... a free appropriate public education and related services designed to meet their unique needs, to assure the rights of the handicapped.

APPENDIX II

Appendix II

Definitions for the Various Categories of Handicapped Children

Within the State of New York there are presently two series of definitions used for the placement of handicapped children. The first are the amendment to Regulations of the Commissioner of Education. These definitions are used for the purposes of appointment of special services aid for handicapped and severly handicapped students. The second set of definitions are those which have been identified by the Regents of New York State.

AMENDMENT TO REGULATIONS OF THE COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION
Pursuant to Section 207 and 3602 of the Education Law

A new Section 200.6 of the Regulations of the Commissioner of Education is added, effective July 23, 1974 to read as follows:

State aid to school districts for the education of pupils with handicapps

(a) For the purposes of apportionment of special services aid under Section 3602 of the Education Law, the definitions of severely handicapped pupils shall be:

(1) Severely crippled and health impaired - a child who must function in a physical environment specially designed; or needs medication intervention and/or maintenance; or who requires individual or small group instruction at a pupil/teacher ratio not to exceed 10 to 1.

(2) Severely handicapped (deaf)- a child with a hearing handicap in excess of 80 decibels (ISO) in the better ear whose degree and type of hearing loss is so severe that spoken language cannot be acquired normally and whose receptive and expressive communication skills are so limited chat additional supportive services are provided. This child would be in need of a highly specialized program with teacher/pupil ratio not to exceed 10 to 1 and with specially certificated teachers of the deaf along with additional support services.

(3) Severely emotionally disturbed - a child whose emotionally disturbance is so severe that the child is unable to relate to other children and may have an absence of speech, and who requires individual or small group instruction at a pupil/teacher ratio not to exceed 8 to 1, and in addition needs the support of clinical services. A severely emotionally disturbed child is one whose condition has been determined to be such by a school psychologist or an approved mental health clinic or a psychiatrist.

(4) Multiply handicapped - a child who, because of the multiplicity of his handicapping conditions, requires intervention by more than one certified specialist in the area of education of the handicapped. For purposes of this section, visually impaired children shall be included, but those children whose second handicap is solely in the area of speech shall not be included.

(5) Trainable mentally retarded - a child who, on the basis of a comprehensive evaluation (such evaluation to include an individual psychological examination) is determined to possess general intellectual capacity that falls lower than 3 standard deviations below the mean of the general population, cannot profit from programs established for the educable mentally retarded, but may be expected to profit from special programs for the trainable.

(b) For the purposes of apportionment of weighted aid under Section 3602 of the Education Law, the definitions of pupils with handicapping conditions shall be:

(1) Trainable mentally retarded - a child who, on the basis of a comprehensive evaluation (such evaluation to include an individual psychological examination) is determined to possess general intellectual capacity that falls lower than 3 standard deviations below the mean of the general population, cannot profit from programs established for the educable mentally retarded, but may be expected to profit from a special program for the trainable.

(2) Educable mentally retarded - a child who, on the basis of a comprehensive evaluation (such evaluation to include an individual psychological examination) is determined to possess general intellectual capacity that falls lower than 1.5 standard deviations below the mean of the general population, cannot profit from regular classroom instruction but may be expected to profit from a special education program for the educable.

(3) Severely speech impaired - a child with unintelligible speech or inability to communicate verbally who is provided daily instruction in regular or special classes by a certified teacher of the speech and hearing handicapped.

(4) Hearing impaired - a child with a hearing handicap in the 40 and above decibel range (ISO) whose hearing loss precludes his functioning normally in a regular classroom situation without the supportive services of an itinerant teacher or a resource room program.

(5) Visually impaired - a legally blind child with the visual capacity of 20/200 or less in the better eye with the best correction or a field of vision restricted to a 20° arc.

Partially sighted - a child whose visual acuity in the better eye with best correction ranges between 20/70 and 20/200, including those children who can still function capably with their residual vision and who have a medically indicated progressive visual loss, or a recurring serious medical eye problem affecting acuity and operable eye disease.

(6) Emotionally disturbed - a child whose condition has been determined to be such by a school psychologist or an approved mental health clinic or a psychiatrist.

(7) Phsyically handicapped - a child who manifests a condition which incapacitates the child and includes orthopedic, neurological, and other medical conditions which result in inability to benefit from the regular educational programs for non-handicapped children, i.e., without some form(s) of special assistance.

Regents' definition of handicapping conditions

(1) Trainable mentally retarded - refers to those individuals whose IQ falls within 25-50 range, are unable to profit from typical educational approaches, and usually possess self-care skills.

(2) Educable mentally retarded - refers to those individuals whose IQ falls within 51-75 range, are able to profit somewhat from education, and can be self-supporting.

(3) Severely emotionally disturbed - refers to those individuals with emotional problems severe enough to prevent them from making the necessary adjustments for effective functioning in the culture.

(4) Hearing impaired - refers to those individuals who experience a loss of hearing, but have some hearing which is usable, or who are completely unable to hear, or who possess a serious deficiency in hearing dating from before the age at which the comprehension of speech is normally acquired.

(5) Visually impaired - refers to those individuals who cannot read normal print and need to use large print and/or recorded materials, or who need to use Braille or recorded materials.

(6) Physically handicapped - refers to those individuals who have a disruption or normal bodily functions due to some intervening pathological process other than mental.

(7) Speech impaired - refers to those individuals who possess a disorder at the verbal level that interferes with communication, calls attention to itself, and causes its possessor to be maladjusted.

(8) Neurologically impaired - refers to those individuals who have a disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using language sopken or written; the disorder may manifest itself in imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell, or to do mathematical calculations. Such disorders include such conditions as perceptual handicaps, brain injury, minimal brain dysfunctions, dyslexia, and developmental aphasia.

(9) Learning disabled - refers to those individuals who experience a disorder in one or more of their abilities to comprehend spoken language, speak, read, write, perform tasks appropriate for a given chronological age or acquire and efficiently retain and utilize knowledge and skill necessary for functional participation in a regular school program with their peer group on a full-time basis.

APPENDIX III

Appendix III

The trend to consolidate school districts is also evident in special education. This policy is based on the concept that in order to provide adequate special education programs, a greater population base than is generally available in most school districts, is necessary. Several approaches have been instituted within the United States. They are as follows:

1. COUNTY APPROACH. In California the county superintendent is directly responsible for all handicapped children who are within districts of less than 901 students. When a district lacks the sufficient population base within its boundaries, then it is required to permit either the county or a neighboring school district to provide the services. Sometimes a district may have a large enough student base to provide its own programs and still it contacts the county for programs. This approach does have its drawbacks in that some counties do not have adequate educational structures and authority to provide for the special education programs. In other areas, the county unit is too large to provide for the population needs. But one of the most positive ideas of this county approach is that it involves already existing governmental structures and the difficulty involved in creating a new structure has been eliminated. Also the county has the authority to raise revenues to meet the program needs of the special education programs.

2. INTERDISTRICT COOPERATIVE AGREEMENT. Another form is the intermediate district unit which utilizes an interdistrict cooperative agreement for educating handicapped children. A typical joint agreement holds for districts in Illinois. The Illinois Department of Special Education

defines the agreement of districts as two or more special education districts which together provide for one type of handicapped child in those cases where an insufficient number of students within a single district to provide comprehensive services. The Department of Special Education published a series of guidelines which stated that a population base of less than 1,500 students was insufficient to establish the necessary programs in the various disability areas. The districts in Illinois are being combined for special education purposes; the agreement of district size depends upon the number of disabilities within the district which need to be provided for by special programs. This joint agreement is not a legal and binding body and therefore, it has no fiscal or political autonomy. One of the involved districts must assume all financial responsibilities and it serves as the coordinator for all other member districts. The member districts of the agreement are assessed on a per pupil basis for all of the administrative costs for the program. The district operating the special programs receives reimbursement from the state with differences between state aid and actual program cost being charged to the participating districts.

This type of arrangement has its pitfalls. Because the intermediate unit is fiscally autonomous, a great deal of contracting between districts must take place. This necessitates an excessive amount of paper work and expenditures of staff time. The biggest problem is the ownership of property and equipment. When special equipment for a program is to be purchased, it is purchased cooperatively. The problem arises when a program is disbanded for some reason; who does the material belong to at this point? Some of the cooperatives have also experienced problems because

of the variance in salary schedules within the joint districts. However, in spite of its weaknesses, the interdistrict cooperative approach has become the most common intermediate unit.

3. SPECIAL EDUCATION SCHOOL DISTRICTS. The third type of district was first created in the early 1970's in St. Louis County, Missouri. This district was created by law in 1957 to include 29 school districts in St. Louis County for the sole purpose of educating the handicapped children. This "district" is governed by a selected board of education: its power is the same as that of any other district in the state; it is sanctioned to set a tax rate; and it is able to levy bonding tax through plebiscite. Much of the training of the handicapped child takes place in a regular school and not in special segregated areas. The "special" style of district for a particular need clearly places the handicapped child in the public light. Michigan has since adopted this style of district format for the handicapped child and no special education referendum has yet been held, (Deighton, 1971).

APPENDIX IV

Table A

Anticipated Per Pupil Expenditure and Excess Cost Per Pupil
in Special Educational Program for Handicapped Children
based upon the Regular Program Cost of Attica, New York

Category of Exceptionality	A Cost Index	B Regular Program Cost	C Special Education Program Expenditure (A x B)	D Marginal Cost of Special Program (C - B)
Gifted	1.14	1189	1355	166
Educable Mentally Retarded	1.87	1189	2223	1034
Trainable Mentally Retarded	2.10	1189	2496	1307
Auditorily Handicapped	2.99	1189	3555	2366
Visually Handicapped	2.97	1189	3531	2342
Speech Handicapped	1.18	1189	1403	214
Physically Handicapped	3.64	1189	4328	3139
Speech Learning Disorders	2.16	1189	2568	1379
Emotionally Disturbed	2.83	1189	3365	2176
Multiple Handicapped	2.73	1189	3246	2057
Homebound/Hospital	1.42	1189	1688	499

Table B

Anticipated Per Pupil Expenditure and Excess Cost Per Pupil
in Special Educational Program for Handicapped Children
based upon the Regular Program Cost of Rome, New York

Category of Exceptionality	A Cost Index	B Regular Program Cost	C Special Education Program Expenditure (A x B)	D Marginal Cost of Special Program (C - B)
Gifted	1.14	1268	1446	178
Educable Mentally Retarded	1.87	1268	2371	1103
Trainable Mentally Retarded	2.10	1268	2663	1395
Auditorily Handicapped	2.99	1268	3791	2523
Visually Handicapped	2.97	1268	3766	2498
Speech Handicapped	1.18	1268	1496	228
Physically Handicapped	3.64	1268	4616	3348
Speech Learning Disorders	2.16	1268	2739	1471
Emotionally Disturbed	2.83	1268	3588	2320
Multiple Handicapped	2.73	1268	3462	2194
Homebound/Hospital	1.42	1268	1801	533

Table C

Anticipated Per Pupil Expenditure and Excess Cost Per Pupil
in Special Educational Program for Handicapped Children
based upon the Regular Program Cost of Oneonta, New York

Category of Exceptionality	A Cost Index	B Regular Program Cost	C Special Education Program Expenditure (A x B)	D Marginal Cost of Special Program (C - B)
Gifted	1.14	1533	1748	215
Educable Mentally Retarded	1.87	1533	2867	1334
Trainable Mentally Retarded	2.10	1533	3219	1686
Auditorily Handicapped	2.99	1533	4584	3051
Visually Handicapped	2.97	1533	4553	3020
Speech Handicapped	1.18	1533	1809	276
Physically Handicapped	3.64	1533	5580	4047
Speech Learning Disorders	2.16	1533	3311	1778
Emotionally Disturbed	2.83	1533	4338	2805
Multiple Handicapped	2.73	1533	4185	2652
Homebound/Hospital	1.42	1533	2176	643

Table D

Anticipated Per Pupil Expenditure and Excess Cost Per Pupil
in Special Educational Program for Handicapped Children
based upon the Regular Program Cost of Syracuse, New York

Category of Exceptionality	A Cost Index	B Regular Program Cost	C Special Education Program Expenditure (A x B)	D Marginal Cost of Special Program (C - B)
Gifted	1.14	1596	1819	223
Educable Mentally Retarded	1.87	1596	2985	1389
Trainable Mentally Retarded	2.10	1596	3352	1756
Auditorily Handicapped	2.99	1596	4772	3176
Visually Handicapped	2.97	1596	4740	3144
Speech Handicapped	1.18	1596	1883	287
Physically Handicapped	3.64	1596	5809	4213
Speech Learning Disorders	2.16	1596	3447	1851
Emotionally Disturbed	2.83	1596	4517	2921
Multiple Handicapped	2.73	1596	3258	2762
Homebound/Hospital	1.42	1596	2266	670

Table E

Anticipated Per Pupil Expenditure and Excess Cost Per Pupil
in Special Educational Program for Handicapped Children
based upon the Regular Program Cost of Levittown, New York

Category of Exceptionality	A Cost Index	B Regular Program Cost	C Special Education Program Expenditure (A x B)	D Marginal Cost of Special Program (C - B)
Gifted	1.14	2050	2337	287
Educable Mentally Retarded	1.87	2050	3834	1784
Trainable Mentally Retarded	2.10	2050	4305	2255
Auditorily Handicapped	2.99	2050	6130	4080
Visually Handicapped	2.97	2050	6089	4039
Speech Handicapped	1.18	2050	2419	369
Physically Handicapped	3.64	2050	7462	5412
Speech Learning Disorders	2.16	2050	4428	2378
Emotionally Disturbed	2.83	2050	5802	3752
Multiple Handicapped	2.73	2050	5596	3546
Homebound/Hospital	1.42	2050	2911	861

Table F

Anticipated Per Pupil Expenditure and Excess Cost Per Pupil
in Special Educational Program for Handicapped Children
based upon the Regular Program Cost of Great Neck, New York

Category of Exceptionality	A Cost Index	B Regular Program Cost	C Special Education Program Expenditure (A x B)	D Marginal Cost of Special Program (C - B)
Gifted	1.14	3347	3815	468
Educable Mentally Retarded	1.87	3347	6258	2911
Trainable Mentally Retarded	2.10	3347	7029	3682
Auditorily Handicapped	2.99	2237	10,007	6660
Visually Handicapped	2.97	3347	9940	6593
Speech Handicapped	1.18	3347	3949	602
Physically Handicapped	3.64	3347	12,183	8836
Speech Learning Disorders	2.16	3347	7230	3883
Emotionally Disturbed	2.83	3347	9472	6125
Multiple Handicapped	2.73	3347	9137	5790
Homebound/Hospital	1.42	3347	4753	1406

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